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The Federal Civil Service as a Career

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FROM

THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL
OF ECONOMICS

The Federal Civil Service as a Career

A Manual for Applicants for Positions and Those in the Civil Service of the Nation

By

El Bie K. Foltz

G. P. Putnam's Sons
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1909

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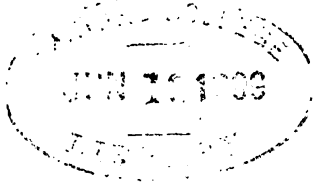

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BY
EL BIE K. FOLTZ

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PREFACE

THE young American rarely has a place ready made for him when he begins his business or professional life: he has to choose his path, and make his own way along it. And, in so doing, it behooves him to look well to his fitness, for the world does not deal tenderly with failures. It is for those who are thinking of the Federal civil service as a career that this book is intended.

There is a host of works of practical value to the young man about to take up a vocation—for the man who would enter the learned professions, for the technologist, for the mechanic, for the business man. But for the aspirant to a career in the civil service there has not been, up to the present, a single book to consult. There are many treatises on the theory and history of government and articles published in magazines here and there, designed primarily for the use of legislators and economists; but the man looking to Government service wants practical information, not theory. And it is this practical information which the present volume offers to American citizens who desire to know the various kinds of work open to civil servants, and the chances of success therein.

Early in the history of our country it became manifest that frequent change in the Government's civil personnel was not conducive to the best results. Tenure of office, entirely dependent upon political preference, offered no inducement for civilians to make a study of conditions when to-morrow might see another party voted into power, and themselves displaced. It is obvious that this system invited the low ideals and loose ethics typically voiced in the notorious sentiment attributed to President Jackson, "To the victor belong the spoils."

With a strange patience our people endured the spoils system for one hundred years. During this time a healthy agitation for reform began to make itself felt, reaching fruition in 1883. Congress heard the demand and passed what is known as the Civil Service Act. This act—with the amendments that followed—provided for the classification of executive positions, and assured reasonable permanence in office to the main body of workers. The law was at first regarded with much misgiving, but a quarter of a century under its guidance has proved the wisdom of those who framed it. As an experiment a few branches only of the executive service were brought under the law, but, the beneficial features becoming evident, branch after branch was added, till now two thirds of the whole executive service is embraced by it.

The private citizen has but a faint idea of

the workings of the governmental machinery. This ignorance is not due so much to an attitude of indifference as to the lack of concentrated information. The average man has neither the time nor the inclination to search lengthy reports and voluminous public documents for facts that should be provided in one short volume. An effort is made, in this book, to give him the information he desires, concisely stated and free from technicalities. The story told is not the result of reading; it is based on observation and actual work in the civil service. The facts brought out are related in such a way that they may be of practical use to all, particularly (1) to the applicant for a Federal position, (2) to the holder of such a position, (3) to the educator, and (4) to the busy citizen.

The requirements for appointment in the Federal civil service are constantly becoming more rigid. The time is here when the applicant must have special preparation if he would succeed. And, in order to prepare himself in a specialty, he should know something of the conditions and methods in vogue. To meet the best success he must dismiss all notions of chance and sudden rise to high office. Success in the Government, as in private life, is a matter of hard work and close attention to business. To the man who is prepared, the Federal civil service offers a career honorable and remunerative. There is a demand for capable men, and this demand is increasing.

Effort does not cease with appointment to office. On the contrary, the holder of a civil-service position must develop his efficiency from day to day; his mind must be kept young and active, his character unimpeachable. He must always bear in mind that he represents a great Government, and he must be ever ready to answer the call to a better post.

The history of our country is one of growth. We are a young, vigorous nation. New problems are presenting themselves for solution, problems of internal as well as international interest. It may be a problem concerning the best method of distributing mail; it may refer to a question of business system; it may involve a treaty. Whatever the problem, it is the office-holder to whom the nation looks for solution. Keeping this in mind, the civil-service man must grow and be ready to respond to the voice of opportunity.

Our educators have a new possibility set before them. There are to-day nearly four hundred thousand Federal office-holders, yet no higher institution of learning offers a course in civil service. There are many courses in political economy and theory of government; but the only place the young man may go for instruction in civil-service practice is to the commercial school. These schools are doing excellent work. It would seem that the time is ripe for the establishment of a college course leading to a degree in practical government.

That there are faults in the civil service is not open to question; that there will continue to be faults is equally certain. It does not take a wise man to find fault, even with the best. It is not my purpose to point out faults, only so far as the citizen, in the performance of his duty, may remedy them. As I conceive it, the man who is intent upon doing his best at all times is too busy to waste time in fault-finding.

If this monograph may indicate the way for the young man aspiring to Government honors, and implant new vigor and new hopes into the office-holder, it will serve a good purpose. If, in addition, it may convey to the American people more light upon one of our great institutions, I shall consider the time spent in collecting the facts indeed well invested.

E. B. K. F.

WASHINGTON,
December 16, 1908.

Practical Federal Civil Service

CHAPTER I

GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATION

IT is the duty of every person to know something of the government under which he lives. This obligation applies to the resident alien, but has especial significance to the citizen, whose conduct the laws are primarily designed to rule. Inasmuch as government provides the foundation of society, it is incumbent upon the people to familiarize themselves with that authority, which so vitally affects their welfare. The responsibility rests upon the units of every nation whether subject to the sway of despotism or the bonds of a constitution, and is of particular importance to those priding themselves on self-government.

In fulfilling this political duty it should be the aim of inquirers to direct attention to the principles that underlie the system of government under which they live. A glance at a few laws or an acquaintance gained through haphazard sources is inadequate to convey an intelligent idea

of the reason behind official acts. The vast ramifications and minute technicalities of administration require years of close study to master and properly fall within the province of the lawyer, but the broad principles upon which they rest may be learned by anyone taking a little trouble to inform himself.

Where two persons unite in a common purpose one of them must lead. This is proper and logical; responsible leadership strengthens both by directing their combined energies with the least confusion. In the early evolution of society the family represented the government, and every family was compelled to have a head to insure stability, the choice naturally falling to the strongest member. This arrangement proved so valuable for offensive as well as defensive purposes that it was adopted by various branches of a family, which united and thus formed a tribe. As groups of a tribe emigrated to distant parts of the earth they lost their common allegiance through segregation, and were driven by the stress of circumstance to choose their own leaders, the result being new tribes. Oppression by neighboring peoples brought about confederation for mutual protection and a nation was born with one person as its head.

Originally, absolute authority was vested in the nation's head, who was not only an executive, but a law-giver and a dispenser of justice, performing this triple office through agents appointed at will. Society long gave universal sanction to

this plan; and, assuming that authority could delegate authority, encouraged the inheritance of regal powers and provided for the maintenance of the ruling class on the principle that protection is worth a price.

Absolutism as applied to government holds unlimited possibilities for good or for bad. Given a monarch of extraordinary wisdom and a high sense of justice a nation will rise to pre-eminence under his hand. The average man, however, is not extraordinarily wise and does not always possess a keen sense of justice; and, as the sons of great men are seldom great themselves, the absolute monarch has frequently proved an oppressor. Therefore, with enlightenment, nations remodeled their governments by limiting the powers of sovereigns or adopting a self-governing form, until to-day the absolute monarch is all but a relic so far as civilization is concerned.

The government of a limited monarchy as administered at present possesses all the cardinal essentials of liberty, only two chief principles marking it as different from a democracy: An hereditary nobility and a well-regulated elective franchise. So far as property rights and personal safety are concerned, the republic has nothing better to offer.

The republican form of government is not a modern institution; many ancient peoples at some period of their national life enjoyed self-government or, in many instances, did not enjoy

it. The theory upon which a republic rests is equality. This idea has, at various times in the world's history, formed the basis of communistic government, a plan closely resembling the present-day Socialism. Such governments, however ideal, have not withstood the test of time owing to the lack of an authoritative head.

All forms of good government must provide a strong centralized authority to assure the nation's stability. This principle not only covers the monarchial idea, but is an important feature of the democracy. Popular representation is only popular in so far as it permits individuals to have a voice in saying who shall govern them. Any interference with executive authority, except by petition, should be regarded with disfavor. In the event a national adminstration is not considered progressive, an effective weapon is had at the polls and the matter may be amicably corrected by ballot. This is nowhere better understood and practised than in the United States of America.

The right to vote is guaranteed to American citizens by the Constitution and it is every man's duty to exercise this right, in local as well as in national elections. The idea of America's founders was that this should be a government distinctly of and by the people, and when a man neglects to cast his ballot for approval or disapproval he marks himself as a poor kind of citizen. It is the non-voting man who raises the loudest outcry

against "corrupt politics," either virtuously holding himself aloof from mingling with "depraved politicians" or advancing the weak excuse that he "does n't want to be bothered." Nothing short of physical incapacity should excuse a man from voting at a national election.

The voter should ally himself with the party whose platform most nearly coincides with his personal views on civil government and vote with that party, though he feel certain that the candidate of his choice has no possible chance of election. The most unexpected things have happened in politics and they are as sure to happen in the future as in the past. Scarcely an election passes without its surprises; conservative districts sometimes reverse their sentiment and sweep an obscure candidate into office. Sometimes a single vote decides party control.

Casting a ballot is a simple procedure and consumes but little time, yet in spite of this thousands of intelligent men throw away the privilege that their forefathers shed their blood to secure. This negligence is particularly noticeable among the so-called higher classes. The illiterate rarely miss the opportunity to vote and are the prey of the demagogue whose individual ambitions are considered without reference to the principles at stake. It is this condition in American politics, this lack of interest by the men who would be expected to have the deepest interest in public affairs, that makes municipal corruption

possible. If every man performed his duty to the State and to his municipality in a manner that plain citizenship and common-sense dictate, and made it his business to advocate good government, as the makers of the Constitution intended, there would be no place for corruption in politics. Mould does not grow in the sunshine and corruption does not thrive on good citizenship.

There is another reason why every citizen should cast a vote. It is the question of principle. If a man believe in a thing he should be courageous enough to support his opinion by deeds. Though his is the only vote cast, let him give expression to his wish by ballot. He may be a pioneer in a great movement, or a feeble voice in struggling millions. His ballot may be a protest or an endorsement. A great nation calls and he should respond.

That there is corruption in politics is beyond doubt. Everybody knows there is. This should be no excuse, however, for anyone to neglect his duty; to make it an excuse is *particeps criminis* on the ground that refusing to help a drowning man is homicide. When one suspects corruption it is his duty as a citizen and as a man to cast his vote against it, and to investigate the rumors. If necessary he should take up the game of politics himself. Good men are always wanted in politics whatever their party adherence.

Citizenship does not stop with voting. There is a pride in the country that every man should

possess. He should bear in mind that, as great nations go, ours is the youngest; yet in spite of this fact vitality and unbounded self-reliance are national characteristics. Within the memory of man our country was ridiculed all over Europe as a nation of uncultured farmers and artisans who possessed a land with no future. We had no place in the conferences of nations. Our representatives were scarcely accorded the courtesy that any gentleman has a right to expect. We made no complaint, but went about to prove our mettle. Our people and our statesmen had character; wise laws were administered by wise men. We worked and prospered.

America emerged from obscurity and won the world's respect and admiration. We are now honored by close friendship with all nations. Our Government is recognized as one of conservatism, stability, and endurance, and when our representatives speak their voice is heard. The fact that America has won recognition and a place in the high esteem of nations is a matter of deep gratification and a source of pride. This alone is an inspiration to set high ideals of citizenship and to discharge every civic obligation with sincerity, whether it be voting or office-holding.

ORGANIZATION OF OUR GOVERNMENT.—America's greatness is the result of two premises: A sound Constitution, and vast natural resources. Without the Constitution natural wealth would remain undeveloped. Fortunately, the Consti-

tution is sound, and the Government based upon it is administered wisely and conservatively.

The Constitution of the United States is merely a set of rules to provide lasting and uniform methods of self-government. It guarantees public and private rights, and provides measures for enforcing them. The system of government briefly outlined in this plainly worded instrument is divided into three branches: Legislative, executive, and judicial. All rights and actions may may be placed under these three heads.

The legislative powers are vested in the Congress, which is divided into two branches, the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Senate is often called the "upper house" and acts as a sort of conservative balance; its members are rightly supposed to be removed farther from the people and somewhat out of reach of individual voters. This excellent plan gives senators a more independent attitude upon legislative questions, which is highly necessary in every kind of government. Much foolish legislation proposed by voters is set aside by the Senate.

The House of Respresentatives, popularly called the "lower house," is the direct representative of the people. Its members are usually pledged to propose or support certain lines of legislation desired by the citizens of their respective districts; in the event they fail to do this the voters can hold them responsible at the polls. It is this direct responsibility that puts every voter into

close touch with the Government. Representatives are careful to consult the wishes of their constituents and to incorporate those wishes into legislation. In this manner the will of the people is supreme.

The Senate and the House of Representatives seldom oppose each other. Occasionally, when one house is dominated by one political party and the other house by another party, opposition is encountered. These conditions are usually adjusted by trading legislation, one branch of the Congress surrendering certain legislation in payment for similar service given by the other branch.

Sometimes questionable legislation is proposed by the House of Representatives with the understanding that it is to be quashed by the Senate. This plan permits a representative to discharge the promises made to his constituents to introduce certain legislation and at the same time it prevents his bill becoming bad law. The favorite way of satisfying constituents and yet preventing ridiculous laws from being enacted is to refer all bills to a committee; the committee confers, and undesirable bills are laid upon the table to remain there. This is a perfectly effective method of disposing of treacherous subjects and a bill so treated is said to "die in committee." A bill is studied and discussed from all sides by the committee before it is reported to either branch of the Congress; upon being reported a day is

set for its discussion, when the public begins to hear something of it.

A bill, with all amendments, must be passed by both houses of the Congress and signed by the President before it becomes a law. Scores of bills, many of them of the most impracticable and fantastic nature imaginable, die in committee. Should every bill proposed by constituents be passed our national laws would be a farce.

Considerable criticism has been directed at congressional methods, but in justification it must be borne in mind that a legislator's business is to make laws that will stand the test of the courts. Unconstitutional law is a mockery, and frequently the cause of financial loss. The Congress represents the people and is obliged, in the public interests, to safeguard the rights and promote the happiness of the people as a body and not to pass class legislation.

The judiciary embraces the various courts. It is this branch of the Government that passes upon the constitutionality of the laws that the Congress enacts.

The enforcement of the laws is provided for by the Constitution in these words: "The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America." A more sweeping authority could scarcely be given. It puts the well-being of a nation into the hands of one man and makes it of vital importance that the nation's selection of that man shall be a wise one. As commander-

in-chief of the army and the navy, the President has the physical power to enforce laws. The army and navy are seldom needed in the enforcement of other than international rights. The execution of the laws is delegated to a vast army of civil officers and subordinates, acting in harmony under one head.

That the enforcement of the laws may be conducted with intelligence the executive branch of our Government is divided into nine departments, ranking as follows: Department of State, Treasury Department, War Department, Department of Justice, Post-Office Department, Navy Department, Department of the Interior, Department of Argriculture, and Department of Commerce and Labor. Each department has charge, in a general way, of the particular business indicated by its name and is under the direction of a secretary. These nine secretaries of departments, called ministers in some countries, form what is known as the President's Cabinet and it is through them that the President acquaints himself with the condition and progress of national business.

Owing to the importance of their posts, the selection of capable secretaries is of the first concern to a newly-elected president. It has long been the custom, upon the accession of a new president, for his predecessor's cabinet to tender their resignations; the incoming president may or may not reappoint them, as his judgment or policy dictates.

The nine departments are divided into working groups variously called "bureaus," "offices," or "divisions," for the purpose of assembling particular business under the direction of men especially capable of administering it. These bureaus are subdivided into sections under the direction of "chiefs of division." The chief of division has charge of the clerks or other employés who actually perform the work; his position corresponds to that of the department manager of a commercial establishment.

In addition to the departments there are various commissions and independent offices, organized as the exigencies demand and dissolved when the necessity for their continuance no longer exists. Such, for example, are the Smithsonian Institution, the Civil-Service Commission, the Government Printing Office, the Isthmian Canal Commission, the Commission to the Philippine Islands, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and a few lesser ones. The heads of these organizations report direct to the President.

All executive business of the Federal Government, of whatever nature, comes under the head of these departments and independent offices. The general manner of carrying out the laws is prescribed by the Congress, but the particular method of accomplishing this end is left to the President, meaning by that any officer or employé directly or indirectly designated by him. It would be impracticable for the Congress to specify

all the details of transacting public business, inasmuch as conditions are always changing.

The Government is often spoken of as being divided into "establishments" instead of departments. There are three so-called establishments—the civil, the military, and the naval. The civil establishment comprises all manner of civil employés from the lowest to the highest, whether serving in the United States, its insular possessions, or in foreign countries. The military establishment comprises officers and enlisted men of the army, and the naval establishment corresponding members of the navy. This division into establishments is one merely of convenience and common consent, and does not in any way alter or take the place of the nine executive departments.

The "insular possessions" or islands belonging to the United States are under the full control of this Government through governors and commissions appointed by the President, but have their own governments suited to local conditions. It is the policy of the Federal Government to disseminate the true principles of our republic among the natives of the new acquisitions, and so ultimately fit them for citizenship and a full participation in the central Government. Remarkable progress has been made toward this laudable end.

The administrative or executive branch of the Government embraces by far the greatest number

of employés, exceeding in numbers the combined strength of all other branches, and constitutes the actual governing body; for this reason it is often spoken of as "the Government" or "the Administration." Its ramifications penetrate every corner of our nation, however remote. Wherever a few hundred persons congregate, representatives of the Federal Government establish themselves there in the form of a post-office, a custom station, or a military post, all subject to the President's order through the proper subordinate officers, and all report to the central government at Washington. This mammoth fabric works with remarkable harmony of parts, due to the centralization of authority. Should one branch of it be delinquent, the failure is sure to be adjusted within a reasonable time.

The administration of the laws and the provisions of the Constitution is an intricate and weighty problem. It will be borne in mind that every act of every officer and employé of the United States, of whatever station or rank, must be in accordance with law. The laborer on a Federal building, the clerk at his desk, the admiral, the general, the cabinet officer are governed by certain laws applied to their particular needs, and to overstep them subjects the offenders to discipline. No one is immune from the governing hand. Even the President, with more actual power than a king or an emperor, is ruled by laws written or traditional, some of the latter the most

rigid; and upon him rests the burden of ruling the nation.

In carrying out the laws, the President looks to his immediate advisers for his chief support and to the Congress for laws to suit the need of the times. When, in the course of administration, it appears that new laws should be made relating to particular necessities the President lays the matter before the Congress in the form of a "message." The Congress considers the message, looks into the necessity for the laws suggested therein, and acts accordingly. Messages are welcomed by the governing body, inasmuch as they not only direct attention to the country's needs but are an index to the execution of party policy.

Each of the nine departments works within its own bounds, devoting its attention to business relating to its particular line; when extraneous matters arise they are referred to the department most interested. In this way the public business is equitably distributed and creditably handled. Obviously it would be ridiculous for the Department of Justice to undertake the investigation of cattle diseases, a work for which the scientists of the Department of Agriculture are peculiarly fitted; or, for the Treasury Department to answer questions relating to the seniority of army officers. The principle followed in administering the laws is "a place for everything and everything in its place."

There frequently arise responsibilities of such a nature that the officer in charge does not feel qualified to carry them out single-handed. The practice in such cases is to appoint a board of three or more members to take up the questions, acting upon the idea that "two heads are better than one." Government by board has two marked advantages to commend it: A view of the subject by several individuals, and an opportunity for each member to hold the others in check. Among the disadvantages may be mentioned the distribution of authority and its consequent weakening, a condition that permits members to delay the public business. There is also sometimes a tendency to disagree, resulting in the board submitting a report with a dissenting voice and so detracting from the value of its findings. Transacting public business by board does not differ in essential elements from a similar system of conducting private business. The board system is now deeply rooted in the government administration, and gets its authority from both law and precedent.

It is remarkable what distorted notions people have concerning a Federal department. The public is lamentably uninformed upon the simplest Government organization and procedure, by "public" meaning the average citizen. This is not due perhaps so much to a lack of interest in national affairs as to a disinclination to take the trouble of learning or a feeling that such know-

ledge is not sufficiently important to pay for the time spent on it when the call of money is more insistent. It will be noted, in this connection, that men of wide interests recognized as builders of industry not only devote considerable attention to Federal policies but often are familiar with administrative details—a suggestion for the average man to note well.

The only department that seems to be well-known is the Post-Office Department, due to the fact that everybody posting a letter is brought into direct relations with that branch of the national organization. As a matter of fact, every department is scattered widely over the country, the departments at Washington being merely head offices just as a railroad maintains head offices in some important city and has numerous stations distributed over its system. As a simple proposition the departments at Washington contain but few employés compared with the number stationed at various points throughout the country and abroad.

Occupations.—The popular conception of duties in a Federal position is one of fantastic distortion. It is not unusual to read in a newspaper that "Mr. J. W. Blank, of this city, has just received notice that he has been appointed to a responsible and lucrative position in Washington"; a few days later follows the inevitable announcement that "Mr. J. W. Blank left last night for Washington, where he has accepted a

responsible and lucrative position with the Government." The following summer this notice appears in the newspaper: "Mr. J. W. Blank, late of this city but now a Government official at Washington, is spending his vacation at home," etc. It may be that J. W. Blank is an "official" whose duties consist in answering call bells, or he may be the head of a big office employing hundreds of men and women; in either event the public knows him as a "Government official" holding a responsible and lucrative position.

To specify the various positions under the Federal Government with even a slight description of each would be to fill volumes; the Census reports[1] give the titles of over fourteen hundred positions. Government positions vary as widely in scope and responsibility as those in private life, ranging from the post filled by the President to the job of charwoman, from senator to office-boy, and scientific expert to wood-chopper. The duties of the positions, both in and out of the classified service, are indicated in a general way by their titles and the manner of carrying them out is prescribed in all cases by the supervising officer. For instance, a collector of internal revenue is responsible for the collection of taxes imposed by the Government upon certain commodities produced by private interests within the United States. The manner of making these collections is prescribed by law and Treasury Department regula-

[1] Census Bulletin, No. 12, 1903.

tions as administered by the President through the Secretary of the Treasury.

The same general principle applies throughout the Federal service. The Government, through its officers and employés, must keep in touch with every grade of employment and every station of life involving its citizens. Inability to feel the nation's pulse would mean stagnation, which could only result in collapse.

The methods of handling public affairs change with conditions but the principles that underlie them are comparable with those that form the basis of private enterprise, except that greater attention is given to technicalities. Certain policies are adopted because the public exigencies require them; the actual methods of carrying out those policies are left to administrative officers. For example, the Congress passed the Isthmian canal bill stating in a general way that a canal should be built, its type and at what cost. The burden of putting this law into effect fell upon the President. He took counsel of his advisers, appointed a body of experts to supervise the work of construction and empowered them to employ capable men in the multitudinous positions arising. Such an enterprise covers all grades of work found in the railroad and shipping business, and requires the services of persons qualified as lawyers, diplomats, financiers, and business supervisors as well as a wide variety of agents and inspectors. The establishment of the Philippine Government is

another example of an unforseen contingency requiring many employés of all kinds to carry the work into execution.

The new positions arising through the changing needs of the Government are not all under the protection of the civil-service laws and regulations. Many of them are temporary; but the greater part are of a permanent nature and are ultimately brought under the so-called "Civil Service" by the President. When it is found desirable for the public good to remove certain positions from political influences the President issues what is called an "executive order," providing that these positions shall be subject to the rules of the merit system.

Government positions are divided into two general classes: Elective and appointive. Elective positions are those of the president, the vice-president, senators, and representatives; all others are appointive. Elective positions are filled by ballot; appointive positions are filled either by personal choice or by examination. When filled by personal choice such a wide variety of reasons, as friendship, social prominence, capability, special fitness and political obligation govern, that no rule will fit two cases; but when a position is filled through examination the candidate must prove his fitness.

Civil positions in the executive departments are either classified or unclassified. A "classified position" is one governed by the civil-service

laws and regulations; an "unclassified position" is not so governed.

Entry to classified positions is usually accomplished through examination, though certain positions may be filled without examination, in which case a position is said to be "excepted," meaning that the person appointed to the position is excepted from examination in the discretion of the nominating officer. Most of the positions carrying confidential relations, administrative capability, and certain special qualifications are in the excepted class; they are dispensed at the will of the executive officer and, viewed from a subordinate aspect, comprise many well-paying places. Unclassified positions (note the distinction from "excepted" positions) comprise those of mere laborer and positions filled by presidential appointment subject to confirmation by the Senate; they are in no way governed by the civil-service laws, both appointment and severance being independent of the rules and regulations governing classified places. The inclination is to put every place possible into the classified service, the reason being that better work can be done by employés who are removed from political influences.

CHAPTER II

GOVERNMENT BUSINESS METHODS

THOSE who have never had business relations with the National Government have little idea of the infinite exactness observed in the transaction of every detail. Business has its short-cuts. Manufacturing establishments have systems suited to their needs, railroads follow a certain line of procedure in conducting their vast affairs, banks perform their business in well-defined channels, and mercantile houses of all kinds pursue their respective efforts according to the best methods that experts and experience have evolved.

All private business establishments have a single eye to one thing and only one thing: Profits. Any system that will reduce expenses and still preserve the elements of safety is eagerly introduced. Short methods, rapid work, and economy are characteristic of business enterprise. The energies of everybody from the proprietor to the office-boy, and everything from the capital stock to the scratch-pad, are devoted to the accumulation of money. Details are sacrificed so far as possible and not a stroke of unnecessary work

is performed. Sentiment has no place in business and common honesty is sometimes lost sight of in the pursuit of wealth.

The Government does its business on a different basis. Government methods have long been the subject of merriment among business men. The sedate, slow-going Government appears to be antiquated from the viewpoint of a progressive commercial man or even an ambitious clerk in the business office. The delay experienced in almost every public transaction is a cause for sarcastic or humorous comment, and not infrequently disgust, by those who attempt to realize profits from the Government. Many business men shrink from dealings with the Federal administration owing to the endless and seemingly unreasonable details required; yet nearly all growing concerns wish to sell their products to the Government for the prestige that Federal patronage carries, if nothing more.

A man used to the clash of the commercial world experiences a novel and well-remembered sensation the first time he undertakes to transact business with the Federal Government. He early learns that Government inspection of the products he has on sale is more rigid than he had expected and more exacting than that required in commercial life, the inspection extending to the minutest details. This is a matter for some concern, for time spent in making or in selling an article means higher cost. Having decided that he can furnish

the articles the Government wants, he quotes his prices in the usual off-hand business manner. A few days later he is surprised to receive a set of proposal blanks and a circular letter telling him just what to do in order to submit his prices in a legal form. He wonders why his letter of quotation does not answer the purpose; but he complies with instructions and fills out the papers sent him.

Assuming that he has secured the order, he is required to execute an indemnity bond for the faithful performance of his contract. Then he is called upon to furnish the articles as the Government desires. Having filled the order he promptly renders the usual statement, only to have it ignored. The Government deliberately inspects and checks the articles and, if satisfactory, the bill is passed for auditing. After awaiting his turn in the drawing of checks by the disbursing officer the contractor receives payment, in most cases long after settlement would have been made by a business establishment. At every step of the procedure he curses the "Government red tape" and vows that he will never attempt to do business with Government bureaus a second time. It is probably the case, however, that he has made a snug profit and the next time the Government is in the market for anything in his line he again competes. He may even develop a hunger for public contracts and find himself growing rich from them.

The business man's complaint about "red tape" is well founded. Every business transaction that the Government undertakes is encompassed by details and technicalities. The brisk, snappy methods of the commercial world are entirely lacking, in many cases antiquated and ridiculous requirements being imposed. The very expression "red tape" comes from the practice, followed not alone by the United States Government but by many foreign states, of tying official papers with a light strong kind of tape red in color. Small dealings are as liable to the rule of technicality as large ones. Yet for all this there is a reason. The reason may be briefly stated in two words: law, precedent.

In looking for the cause of red tape it will be remembered that every office-holder must act within the law and that there are laws, or regulations framed under laws, governing all procedure; to violate these regulations subjects the offender to discipline and vitiates his acts. The technicalities laid around the awarding of contracts are there for the purpose of preventing both mistakes and frauds, of which the Government is remarkably free considering the vast ramifications of its business interests. Were the awarding of contracts not protected by technicalities the way would be open for a large amount of fraud. The multiplicity of details, necessitating perusal by numerous persons, prevents collusion; and whenever frauds are uncovered it invariably follows

that the business was left in the hands of too few persons.

The principle of passing business through the hands of several individuals is the basis of civic honesty to a certain extent. A man is not likely to steal when he knows that others checking his work may discover his peculations; nor will he exercise less care in doing his part well, knowing that mistakes are charged against his efficiency record.

Business is facilitated and expedited in private concerns by the chief executive officer, who is usually authorized to act for the company in matters both of policy and procedure. His hand is free and his word is law with his company. When he thinks the company should buy certain commodities he orders it done and his subordinates obey. Upon presentation of the bills they are paid as a part of the office routine and the proceeding is closed. Successful business depends upon a shrewd and vigorous one-man power.

Conditions under the Government are the reverse. It follows, therefore, that the manner of doing business must be the reverse. Instead of one-man power, it is no-man power. The individual is not a factor. It is simply "the Government." Able business men occupy important posts under the Government and in many cases are also engaged in successful private business during their terms of office. In their private activities they are representative men of business with

all that the word means—alert, energetic, shrewd; they employ all the short-cuts and the best systems. Yet in conducting the Government's business these men adopt the technicalities, delays, and red tape characteristic of Federal methods. They cannot do otherwise under the law.

The purchase of everything from a lead pencil to a battle-ship must have congressional approval, or the individuals passing upon the expenditures will be held liable. That this object may be attained and the Congress have a working plan, the Secretary of the Treasury compiles an annual estimate of expenditures based upon reports sent to him by the various offices and departments. He includes in this general estimate all kinds of supplies, salary accounts, building repairs and construction, post-office maintenance, army and navy subsistence, and miscellaneous and contingent expenses.

The estimate is submitted to the Congress, where it is carefully considered item by item, and a bill, embodying it in whole or in part or with additions, is passed, thus providing for carrying on the public business for another year. The bill as passed by the Congress authorizes the various expenditures to be made by the offices or departments named and only for the purposes cited. Passage of the bill makes it an act, and the act becomes a law when signed by the President. The Presidents puts the law into effect, which means that the various branches of the Government may

assume financial obligations only as provided by the law.

Should a bill be passed providing for certain work, but by an oversight the Secretary of the Treasury is not authorized to pay out the funds for carrying on the work, the legislation is of no effect. If the work be of very great moment the President will call an extra session of the Congress for the express purpose of correcting the fault. For example: If the Congress failed to pass what are known as the "Legislative, Executive and Judicial Appropriation Bill" and the "Sundry Civil Bill" it would necessitate the President calling an urgent extra session for this purpose; otherwise, the Government would disintegrate on June 30th, the end of the fiscal year, for lack of funds.

The congressional acts providing funds for carrying on the public business surround the authorized expenditures with two essential conditions which must be complied with before the money can be appropriated from the United States Treasury: They must be expended for the purpose and within the time specified. In complying with these provisions the Secretary of the Treasury supports his action by receipts and, unlike a business house, operates no credit system; the Government borrows but rarely lends.

Disbursing officers, whether in Washington or in the remotest parts of the country, are required to submit proof that the funds have actually been

expended, the proof consisting of returned checks or receipts signed by the parties receiving the money. Their accounts are audited by a large corps of experts, who satisfy themselves that the debts have been legally incurred and the receipts therefor properly executed; if fiscal officers fail in this they are held liable, all being adequately bonded. It requires time and detail to accomplish this checking and cross-checking. Upon finding the accounts correct, the amounts are charged against their respective appropriations.

It will be seen from this that the Federal disbursing systems are somewhat different from those used by private companies, due to the safety checks provided by law.

The correspondence carried on by the Government is also subject to more care and given more thought than letters written in private business. Business men say that official correspondence is "cold-blooded." This is due to the fact that the Government is not in the money-making business and has no occasion to cajole or to be effusive. All Government should represent stability and accuracy. It therefore follows that slovenly-written and poorly-composed letters should not be sent out from the department offices; such correspondence carries no recommendation and inspires no confidence. It is the aim of executive officers to write letters that carry weight wherever they go, and in doing this it is particularly necessary that they adhere closely to the strictest

rules of courtesy and under no circumstances make statements that will in any way embarrass the policy of the Administration. The making of promises of doubtful fulfilment subjects the writer to summary discipline.

It was at one time the practice to resort to ambiguities in correspondence. This is no longer encouraged, the present inclination being a strong one to plain, clear language; polite lying under the name of diplomacy is not countenanced. Evasions are not viewed with favor, though it is not infrequently necessary to conceal the Government's actions and at the same time satisfy a correspondent. To do this without misrepresentation is a valuable accomplishment. The official correspondent has to keep in mind the fact that the public regards what he says and does as official whether he wishes it to appear so or not. Owing to the proneness of misquotation and misinterpretation it is necessary that he speak guardedly at all times and highly so that he put nothing on paper that could possibly bring criticism upon the Federal service.

Letter-writing may be carried to excess. The dispatching of lengthy communications about trivialities shows lack of discernment and poor judgment. This habit, at times, shows signs of engrafting itself upon various departmental offices; but it no sooner gets a fair hold than a superior officer puts an end to the practice by an office order.

All bureau correspondence, except that of a merely routine nature, passes through the hands of at least two officers or executive clerks, each of whom is held responsible for its import by affixing his initials as a check. In many cases the officer signing correspondence scarcely glances at the contents of letters owing to the pressure of business, depending entirely upon his subordinates for their accuracy and reliability. His confidence is seldom misplaced.

The practice of forwarding letters through superior officers up the line and transmitting the replies in the same manner, thus leading to numerous delays, has been subjected to much criticism and ridicule. This system may be better understood when it is realized that every officer is responsible for his subordinates in the way that an agent is responsible to his principal. In completing an official record or closing an official act it is necessary to have it approved by the officer in charge; it is also important that the head of the bureau or department should know what his subordinates are doing. And on the other hand, few subordinates care to assume sole responsibility for official acts, preferring a fair division with their superiors.

When a letter starting trouble emanates from an office not only is the person who signed the letter held responsible, but every one through whose hands it has passed for checking. This multiple responsibility makes all concerned more

careful and causes letter-writing to revert to the no-man principle. Correspondence of a merely routine nature, not involving the office policy or inviting discussion, may as a general rule be conducted direct without passing through the hands of superiors. This practice is becoming more extended.

The former practice of tabling correspondence and delaying replies until attention is absolutely necessary has been supplanted by modern methods. Most departmental officers give prompt attention to all letters, many disposing of every piece of mail before leaving the office for the day; if letters cannot be answered definitely at once, correspondents are so informed, or if referred to other offices a note is sent out to that effect. This is in line with the latest business methods. In fact, there is a decided drift toward adopting the most approved business methods throughout the Government departments so far as they are applicable to public requirements and permissible under the law.

New methods of bookkeeping, filing records, and caring for office papers are welcomed and investigated. Card-index and loose-leaf systems are fast taking the place of the old clumsy book systems. Subject-indexing and carbon-systems are used wherever practicable. Whatever system is used the practice is in all cases to carry it out consistently, tried systems being preferred to the untried.

A popular notion is widely current that there is no such thing as hard work in the Federal departments and that, in comparison with service under the private business establishment, Government work is mere child's play. So far as actual, real, strenuous work is concerned the Government neither offers nor permits immunity. While it is unquestionably true that there are individual cases of easy places on the Federal pay-roll, the Federal office as a rule presents as much well-directed energy as does the business office. Conditions in government offices, however, are different from those in private establishments. The nervous haste, blunt manners, and slang of the business world have no place in the departments. Public men make it a point to be courteous and require the same qualifications in subordinates. Blustering and storming are particularly frowned upon.

It is the dignity, soon acquired by the appointee to a Federal post, that gives the impression of ease. Work there is and plenty of it, from the mechanic to the head of the nation. The administrative officer, the clerk, the scientist, the lawyer, the legislator, and the laborer all have a part to perform and they must perform it well or resign. Negligence, carelessness, loose methods, and lax discipline have no more place in a government office than in a business office and, while tolerated somewhat longer, the result is loss of position. The sooner the public at large understands this the better.

It is doubtful whether any line of business of corresponding grade can produce better results, in quantity and quality, than that rendered by postal employés, particularly railway mail clerks who have the element of personal danger thrown in for good measure. The census office, the pension office, the patent office, and the auditors' offices employ thousands of clerks whose work is as tedious, trying, and age-producing as can be found in a similar line of work anywhere. The printers and compositors at the Government Printing Office find their work no easier than in private life. The laborers and mechanics in the navy yards and gunshops turn out as much work as is produced in the private shop. Men in the immigration, customs, and internal revenue services are, in many instances, greatly overworked both physically and mentally.

The relation between the Government and its employés is not, in principle, different from that existing between the employer and employés in private life in so far as efficiency is concerned. It is a contract and each party thereto must carry out his agreement, which in this case means good honest service.

It is ridiculous to suppose that the business of a great nation can be administered by haphazard methods and lazy employés. Small, unprogressive States may get along for a while by supporting an idle class of office-holders, depending upon able men in private life to carry on affairs;

but a strong government can hope to remain strong only by weeding out dead material. Tales and traditions of government idlers have come down from the early days of our nation's career, but the sleeping period has been passed in America's history. The Government is not administered with a view of getting the uttermost effort from employés, but it does expect and does get an honest day's work.

In contrast with this idea of inattention to public business is that peculiar one of prestige. Every large Federal office has frequent application made to it, directly or indirectly, for endorsement of some article vended by business houses. The fact that the Government uses such-and-such an article is carefully set forth in the purveyor's literature as a trade-getter and read by prospective purchasers. So implicitly do people trust the Government that many times purchases are made on no other recommendation than that the article is "used by the U. S. Government."

This plan of securing trade is eagerly adopted by newly-organized companies, particularly venders of patented novelties, office equipment, secret formulæ, and new inventions. Administrative officers must be constantly alert and have to exercise considerable caution to prevent inadvertantly recommending purchased articles. There are business establishments that go so far as to offer consignments of their products to the Govern-

ment free of cost in the hope of getting an opinic of their worth. Executive officers are not pe mitted to give recommendations as to the wort of vended articles; should it be done in one ca it would apply to all inasmuch as favoritis would mean trouble, and the practice woul entail endless misunderstandings.

In this connection attention should be invite to the publishing of Government business b newspapers, magazines, and other periodical The work of many bureaus is the subject of su cessful "write-ups" by newspaper reporter particularly when the work appears to have direct bearing upon a large body of the peopl On the other hand, there are bureaus whose wor is all but unknown to the public, because it do not appear to affect the country's interest from popular viewpoint.

Federal business in this respect is like privat business: the demand for publicity is sometime heeded, and at other times it is ignored. Ther are conditions when the public's interests ar best conserved by secrecy, and when the Goverr ment finds secrecy advisable orders are given t that effect. There are occasions when the prema ture announcement of the Government's bus ness would precipitate unpleasant complication Again, the newspaper reporters and correspond ents are often cognizant of Federal proceedings c the highest popular interest, but are in hon bound to silence until the Government "releases

the details. The trust that officials place in newspaper representatives is seldom misplaced, a fact that speaks exceedingly well of newspaper ethics.

CHAPTER III

THE MERIT SYSTEM

EFFICIENCY is a cardinal necessity in every branch of successful endeavor. The commercial world recognizes this. No business man can hope to prosper by conducting his business on incompetency, whether on the part of his employés or in his methods of transacting business. Efficiency is the foundation upon which good administration rests and is the soul of the civil service, or more properly speaking, the merit system of the American Government.

HISTORY OF THE SYSTEM.—The system of administering affairs according to the civil-service laws is not well understood outside of Government circles. Some Federal officers even are not as familiar with the rules and regulations of the system as they might be. Lack of concise information has led to considerable criticism and misunderstanding.

Prior to 1883 our Government was administered under what is known as the "spoils system," so called from Andrew Jackson's celebrated remark: "To the victor belong the spoils." That system was based upon the reasonable assumption that

the worker is entitled to a share of the profits in proportion to the value of his services, the pay being Federal offices. Accordingly a petty politician could demand appointment to a Federal post for which he might be entirely unqualified, in view of his services to the successful party; to oppose him would be political suicide. The result was a glutting of the minor positions with incompetent and ofttimes vicious employés who had no interest in public affairs beyond sordid gain, their inefficiency delaying public business and demoralizing the efforts of well-meaning officials to give good administration. This fault was not so apparent in the early days of the nation's history, inasmuch as the demands upon the Government were few and public business was confined to narrow limits.

As the country grew the problem of Federal administration increased, until in the long unsettled period of inflamed sectional feeling and carpet-bag rule following the close of the Civil War it reached a point where a change had to be made. It was apparent to the most casual observer that the chaotic condition and irresponsibility of subordinates was detrimental to the public interests. Administrative officers also became tired of the unceasing and ever increasing importunities for Federal patronage, as well as disgusted with the many human derelicts and incompetents foisted upon them. So in 1883 the Congress passed what is known as the Civil Service

Act, which provides, in brief, for the filling of subordinate positions in the executive civil service through efficiency considerations.

Immediately upon the establishment of the new system an emphatic protest arose in all parts of the country. The petty politicians claimed an interference with their rights, while the general public was divided between skepticism as to the practicability of such a system and a suspicion that it was only a scheme to satisfy their clamor for better administration.

The step was an experimental one; but the law had scarcely been placed upon the statute books, when its good effects began to be realized. Demagogues could no longer demand of executive officers places for their henchmen, but were told that it would be necessary for their protégés to submit to competitive examinations. This acted as a severe blow, for the political small-fry threatened to rebel if they were not rewarded by Federal patronage regardless of competency. Talk of repeal at once became rife. Civil-service became an issue at the polls and the political leaders of both great parties, foreseeing the drift of public sentiment, promptly incorporated a civil-service plank in their national platforms.

It was soon realized that, whatever differences of opinion existed in regard to other national policies, voters were almost a unit for better civil administration; and, almost before anyone suspected the force of the movement, the merit sys-

tem of making appointments to Federal positions became a fixture. No one appreciated the great step more than party leaders, and succeeding presidents, without regard to politics, availed themselves of their prerogatives under the law and extended the system to branch after branch of the executive service.

To-day the merit system is beyond the experimental stage; it is a pronounced success. Small politicians no longer think of demanding patronage without efficiency, but are content either with a money consideration for their work or, more generally, with the "good of the party" which in the end, after a period of training and education, fits them for office. The merit system in this manner is more far-reaching than its projectors anticipated and has become a factor in training ambitious small politicians to better ideas of civic duties as well as providing capable officers and employés for carrying out the Government's administrative policies. Elective officials have also been relieved of the obligations put upon them to dole out clerical and other minor executive positions as spoil due their followers; they are now placed in the more independent and respectable attitude of being able to tell place-seekers to submit to a civil-service examination as a test of fitness, a condition that relieves them of many annoyances consuming much time which can be put to better public use.

It will not be understood that the removal

of the subordinate executive places from political influence has resulted in depriving the people of the rights of self-government. On the contrary, it has provided opportunity for thousands of citizens who do not possess the qualifications of the successful politician but whose high ideals and special fitness make them desirable public servants; to these the way is open to modest careers in the Federal service. Whereas, prior to the adoption of the civil-service law the national administration was regarded as spoil, and consequently remained in the hands of professional politicians, sixty per cent. of it is now absolutely removed from political influence and so brought nearer the people.

A merit system of making appointments in the National Government is not peculiar to the United States. Nearly all countries operate some kind of a merit system, varying as widely in practicability as the countries themselves, and suited to national needs and characteristics. The laws of certain countries make it all but impossible for the average person to secure an honorable place in the civil service, imposing requirements as to property ownership, family descent, or social position, while in other countries the laws are as liberal as in America. Military and naval service is quite generally recognized as a cause of preferment, other conditions being equal.

EXTENT.—The merit system as operated in the United States by no means includes all positions

outside of the elective offices. As a matter of fact, it covers only a comparatively few high public offices. Such places as are filled by chiefs of bureaus, assistant secretaries, members of commissions, postmasters above the fourth class, revenue collectors, various fiscal officers, diplomats, Federal judges, United States marshals, and a large body of officers having supervisory duties and directly representing the execution of party policy are not now and never will be brought into the so-called civil-service system. To bring such positions under the civil-service regulations would be either to obliterate political parties or make it impossible to carry out party policy, which would reduce our Government to one of bureaucracy. Any tendency to take away party prerogative should be viewed with distrust.

Party administration represents the people's will as indicated at the polls, and to give free expresssion to the policies endorsed by the majority vote it is necessary that the executive offices remain open for the incoming President to dispose of according to his party's and the country's best interests. It is a President's duty to the people to carry out his party's pre-election promises, a practice that is universally recognized and closely followed; in the event his administration is not satisfactory to the people, their recourse is to be had at the polls. Therefore, in filling the high executive offices, which is usually done upon consultation with party leaders, the question is

not one of a division of spoils but one of national welfare. Indeed, the President frequently experiences considerable difficulty in filling those offices and many appointees accept at a personal financial loss.

It must not be inferred from this that office-seeking has passed. In the true meaning of the word "office," place-seeking is as conspicuous as ever; but the disgraceful scramble for subordinate positions, once doled out under the spoils system, has been eliminated. An "officer" or "official" represents something much different from an "employé," though both are said to be office-holders. Those familiar with Government administration understand by the word "officer" or its synonym "official" anyone in executive authority, while "employés" fill the thousands of positions necessary for carrying on public business.

Position-seeking is done through the Civil Service Commission, while "office-seeking" is done by application to the President. The number of office-seekers increases at every election, and when a political party has triumphed over one that has been in power for several consecutive administrations there is a tidal wave of office-seekers looking for appointment. In late years there has been a tendency to ignore the claims of mere political service in making appointments to high executive posts, special requirements to suit individual cases being demanded. It is

probable that the future will see this tendency emphasized rather than diminished, inasmuch as it appears to meet the people's favor and to suit national conditions. Presidential appointees are held to stricter account than formerly, a policy in administration that has produced excellent results throughout the whole executive service.

The merit system covers all positions in the executive departments and independent establishments, as a general rule, of a clerical, sub-clerical, mechanical, technical, and sub-executive character. There are about 350,000 positions in the whole civil service, of which nearly two thirds are in the classified service. Of the latter, one half are under the Post-Office Department; the rest are scattered throughout the other eight departments and independent offices. The number of positions filled by competitive examination is increasing every year, both by natural growth and extension of the competitive system.

As showing the extent of the classified service, popularly known as "the civil service," a glance at the following figures will be of interest:

Clerical positions	66 per cent.
Professional, technical and scientific	5 per cent.
Executive	1 per cent.
Mechanical	5 per cent.
Sub-clerical and laborers	20 per cent.
Miscellaneous	3 per cent.

There is an inclination, fostered by experience,

to cover all kinds of subordinate positions by the civil-service rules. Several of our presidents have been criticised for having extended the competitive system too freely, but time has proved the wisdom of their action. So firmly is the merit idea now fixed in our Government that the competitive method of making appointments to all positions but those of strictly administrative character is promptly extended to new services provided by congressional legislation.

The merit system is now so nicely balanced that examinations are required of laborers, tests of fitness in such cases being confined to personal character, physical strength, and experience. In fact, experience is coming more and more to be regarded as the chief factor in the merit system, the Government profiting at the expense of commercial establishments.

One of the early criticisms aimed at the civil service was the danger of a favored class becoming fixed upon the country, similar to the ruling classes under monarchies. The favored class idea was given up when it became known that the sons and daughters of Government employés were compelled to submit to the same conditions in seeking Federal posts as those who had no relatives in the public service. The fear of nepotism was entirely abandoned when, within a year from the promulgation of the law, it was definitely settled that not more than two members of a family should hold office at the same time.

THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION.—The merit system of making appointments, as provided by the Civil Service Act of 1883 and the rules promulgated thereunder, is in the direct control of the Civil Service Commission, an organization also created by the said act. The Commission is composed of three members appointed by the President, one of whom must be of a different political party from the other two. Its work relates to examining and certifying applicants for executive positions, and instituting suitable action in cases of alleged violation of the statute governing the executive civil service. In order to carry on this work the Congress passes an annual appropriation bill, providing the necessary funds to put the law into execution, as is done in all other branches of the Government service; without this annual appropriation it would be manifestly impossible to continue the Commission's work; and nearly every year some Congressman, either in a spirit of zeal or jest, or perhaps as a concession to some of the old-fashioned politicians of his home district, opposes the appropriation bill. As the work of the Commission increases the Congress provides more funds to cover the greater demands.

The work of the Civil Service Commission is highly systematized, as it must necessarily be when it is realized that upward of 125,000 persons are examined yearly, embracing applicants from every grade of society, all creeds, colors, and conditions. In conducting this vast work it is

important to devote personal attention to every candidate, however great or insignificant he may be. Fairness and uniform justice must be observed. The examination papers must be rated and the applicants given a relative standing. Registers of eligibles must be kept, so that a properly qualified person may be furnished to any branch of the executive service at a moment's notice. Thus it may happen that simultaneous calls reach the Commission in Washington for a stenographer in the customs service at San Francisco, a machinist in the Norfolk navy yard, an expert chemist, a patent examiner, and a messenger at Washington, a draftsman at Boston, an interpreter at the Ellis Island immigration station, and postal clerks at ten different post-offices scattered over the country. The Commission must be able, without delay, to certify the persons eligible for the various positions without a mistake or a doubt as to their fitness.

This activity merely covers one division of the Commission's work; in addition, tens of thousands of requests for printed matter and blank forms are acted upon yearly, thousands of inquiries are answered by mail, eligibles removed from the registers at the expiration of a year from entry thereon, investigations of fraud and political activity conducted, and questions of authority decided.

As an aid in the accomplishment of its work the Commission has divided the country into civil-

service districts, each in charge of a local secretary. These districts cover in a general way the subtreasury, custodian, customs, mint and assay, post-office, and internal-revenue services; information in regard to any of these services may be secured by addressing the local secretary at district headquarters. There are twelve of these districts with headquarters as follows: Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Washington, Atlanta, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Paul, St. Louis, New Orleans, Denver, and San Francisco. The secretary conducts the examinations and keeps a register of eligibles for his district, and is responsible to the Commission at Washington for conditions under his jurisdiction.

The civil-service districts are thoroughly organized by the appointment of local examining boards in the smaller towns and cities within their respective domain. These local boards, about 1700 in number, have charge of the examinations for positions filled in their own place and report to the district headquarters. The members of local boards are, in practically all cases, employed in other governmental capacities; so that the work done as members of the civil-service boards is but a part of their official duties. Thus it will be seen that, by distributing the work among a large number of Federal employés, the Civil Service Commission is able to accomplish its mammoth work.

CLASSIFICATION.—In accordance with the civil-

service law two grand divisions have been made of executive positions—classified and unclassified.

The classified service embraces all positions in the executive civil service of however widely divergent character, except those of mere laborer and persons whose appointments are subject to confirmation by the Senate. It is the classified service, and that only, which is popularly known as the "civil service." For example, the clerks in a post-office are said to be "in the civil service" and the postmaster "not in the civil service." The truth is, both the postmaster and his clerks are in the civil service; but the postmaster, being appointed for a definite period and his appointment being subject to confirmation by the United States Senate, is in the unclassified service, while the clerks in his office are appointed through examination and are in the classified service, and therefore protected by the law of 1883 and the rules framed thereunder.

The term "classified service" arose from the manner of dividing the various positions into groups according to salary. According to the classification adopted by the heads of departments and independent offices, the personnel has been grouped as follows:

General Classification.

Class A. Persons whose compensation is less than $720 a year.

B. $720 or more, but less than $840.

Class C. $840 or more, but less than $900.
D. $900 or more, but less than $1000.
E. $1000 or more, but less than $1200.
1. $1200 or more, but less than $1400.
2. $1400 or more, but less than $1600.
3. $1600 or more, but less than $1800.
4. $1800 or more, but less than $2000.
5. $2000 or more, but less than $2500.
6. $2500 or more.

The Railway Mail Service.

Class 1. $800 and $900 a year.
2. $1000.
3. $1100.
4. $1200 and $1300.
5. $1400 and $1500.
6. $1600.

Clerks and Carriers in Post-Offices of the First and Second Class.

Class 1. $600 a year.
2. $800.
3. $900.
4. $1000.
5. $1100.
6. $1200.

The classification according to salary does not indicate the kind of position occupied, inasmuch as persons are sometimes assigned to lower grades of work from registers of high grades.

Thus, an attendant in a marine hospital is supposed to perform work of a more or less menial

nature, such as sweeping, washing windows, running errands, waiting on the table, or nursing sick sailors; yet college graduates, practicing physicians, and men of fine education, training, and experience are not infrequently appointed to the position of attendant, where their special attainments are utilized advantageously and their salaries are in proportion thereto.

Subordinates sometimes receive higher pay than those who supervise their work. This is principally due to specialized work in which few persons are found proficient. It will be readily seen that persons competent to fill the lower administrative positions are more numerous than the experts in a specialty who have given years of their lives to mastering the details of their chosen vocations. A steel engraver, for example, who has brought the best energies of his life into such technical work, might reasonably receive more pay than the chief of a division who possesses but little more than average administrative ability. Yet, according to practice, the chief of division will rank the engraver and will look to him for results.

There is a regulation of the Civil Service Commission that prohibits employés from doing a higher grade of work than their examination covered, and this provision is rigidly enforced. It frequently is the case, however, that persons of the same grade or rank are subjected to different kinds of examinations, depending upon

the nature of the work required of them. This is particularly true of positions paid from what is known as a "lump sum." They are then ranked in their grade according to their pay and are also classified according to their pay. It will be noticed from this that persons of the same grade may be classified differently, even standing higher in the classification than some outranking them. The classification, therefore, has no reference to rank but to the compensation received, disbursing officers and statisticians grouping salaries without respect to rank.

The classified service is divided into sections often referred to as the Departmental, Internal Revenue, Indian, Government Printing, Railway Mail, Custom-House, and Post-Office services. Various regulations, suitable for the individual service, are in force.

The positions in the classified service are grouped, for convenience, into six divisions as follows: Clerical, technical, executive, mechanical, subclerical, and miscellaneous. The dividing line between these groups is not as distinct as might be wished, two or three sometimes merging. A high-grade clerk, for instance, may act as chief of division in the absence of that executive, or a man may be a scientific investigator and a chief of division at the same time; or, a skilled mechanic may be required to possess administrative capacity. Senior clerks are generally required to possess some executive ability, as the na-

ture of their work often demands supervisional duties.

Positions in the classified service are more clearly defined than those in other branches of Government service, and incumbents are required to confine their work closely within the limits of their official position as called for in their appointment.

APPORTIONMENT.—The Civil Service Commission, in accordance with law, is obliged in filling positions in the departments at Washington to apportion the places among the various States and Territories so far as possible. In the case of subtreasuries, customs offices, the life-saving service, internal-revenue offices, mints and assay offices, post-offices, the custodian service, navy yards, arsenals, the quartermaster's department at large, and similar branches, it is customary to draw upon the neighboring States when filling civil-service positions. This is due chiefly to one of two causes: either the pay is too small to make it worth acceptance by an appointee living at a distance, or the work is of such a nature as to make it unfair to introduce strangers. Obviously it would be unreasonable to appoint a laborer residing in California to a position in Washington paying but $1.25 a day; or to offer a position as surfman in the life-saving service to a man on the Nebraska plains who had never seen the ocean; it would be unfair to appoint mail carriers in New York from Tennessee or North Dakota.

It is sometimes the case that certain parts of our large country enjoy greater prosperity than other portions, and it is always difficult to secure eligibles in those sections. The highly technical nature of many of the classified positions at Washington also militates against an equal apportionment. Manufacturing States maintain technical colleges and attract technical men; so when such experts are required by the Government, the Civil Service Commission is obliged to apportion them in accordance with their legal residence.

Another cause for unequal apportionment is a lack of eligibles in those parts of the country that are identified with the minority political party. There appears to be an idea quite general in the public mind that applicants for civil-service positions belonging to a political party different from that in power at Washington, do not have as good a chance of securing appointment as do members of the dominant party; hence they do not present themselves for examination. This is an entirely erroneous and harmful idea. It is neither in accordance with the wishes of the Civil Service Commission nor the spirit of the law. The very essence of the law is to guarantee an equal chance for securing civil positions regardless of the applicant's political or religious views. Republicans, Democrats, and members of minor political parties are on a common level before the Civil Service Commission; indeed, applicants

are cautioned by the Commission to refrain from giving any kind of a hint as to their political preferences, and a violation of this warning is sufficient to disqualify them.

The idea that politics still has much to do with securing minor positions, in spite of the plain law to the contrary, has had such a strong hold upon the South during recent years that the Southern States, Virginia prominently excepted, are in arrears in the number of appointments to which they are entitled. Should the Washington Government fall into the hands of the Democratic party, as it will do some time, there is no doubt that a strong influx of Southern applicants for civil-service places, with a corresponding decrease in Republican States, would be the result.

Let it be understood, clearly and unequivocally, that *politics does not enter into the eligibility of any applicant examined by the Civil Service Commission.* This statement is inflexible and without reservation or exception.

Another cause that contributes to the South's low percentage in apportionment is the large negro population and a consequent high rate of illiteracy. As illiteracy practically eliminates the negro as a factor in civil-service appointments it naturally follows that the white population must furnish proportionately more candidates than they otherwise would to maintain their apportionment. This is not done; and unfortunately so, because Southerners occupying Federal posts have

proved particularly efficient and faithful. As conditions exist at present the opportunities for Southern young men in filling careers under the Federal Government are exceptional. Their chances for appointment are unusually good, owing to the large number of positions due them under the apportionment.

Several of the States have far exceeded their quota. Chief of these are Virginia, Maryland, and the District of Columbia. This condition is due to the fact that there is a large number of positions at Washington of which the salary is so low that it would be unreasonable to expect persons at a distance to incur the expense which the acceptance of such appointments would involve. Many of the positions also are temporary and are filled by residents of Washington and its environs.

CHAPTER IV

THE MERIT SYSTEM (*Continued*)

ADVERTISEMENTS are sometimes seen in the newspapers like this: "Will pay $50 to any one securing me a Government position paying $900 a year." Similar notices are inserted by over-anxious persons in the hope that some inducement may be given appointing officers to stretch a point. The making of such suggestions is plain bribe-offering, an offence punishable by a heavy penalty. The publishing of an advertisement of this kind is done through ignorance, for appointment to positions that are worth having is made after examination by the Civil Service Commission and their system of examination scarcely admits of collusion.

So well does the Government regulate the conduct of its servants that employés are prevented from accepting tips, fees, or any kind of extra remuneration in addition to their salary for work performed in official hours. It is a common occurrence for tourists to offer tips to guards, guides, messengers, and even higher grades of employés. The acceptance of gratuities for the performance of official duties meets with summary

dismissal. This principle pertains to every kind of work done in Government time, whether the amount received in payment therefor is five cents or five dollars. The Government acts on the theory that a man's salary buys his services during official hours; outside of those hours he may do as he pleases in regard to extra work so long as his acts do not bring discredit upon him as a public employé.

Appointment to a Government position after competitive examination is not the end of effort. The basis of the merit system is merit, both in securing office and in a proper performance of duties after appointment. Mistakes, however, are sure to occur under any system no matter how rigid a method of checking is observed. Everybody and every organization is liable to error. The Government is no exception. There are mistakes of policy, mistakes of judgment, and mistakes of administration; the high and the low, the officer and the subordinate are fallible. Sometimes the culpable one is harshly dealt with, at other times his delinquency is unheeded; it all depends upon the nature of the individual case.

Errors of judgment are perhaps the worst form of delinquency for the public employé. Such mistakes are likely to lead to all kinds of complications and confusion, and the person who repeatedly betrays this inefficiency usually finds it best to resign. Errors due to haste or overwork are usually ignored. A few officers treat

mistakes entailing financial losses as serious matters and charge the losses against the employé's salary. Generally each mistake carries its own lesson and the office-holder profits accordingly.

EFFICIENCY.—Administrative officers keep efficiency records of the employés in their jurisdiction, rendering a monthly report of the work done, punctuality, diligence, faithfulness, accuracy, and other facts bearing upon an employé's efficiency. These reports are filed by the principal officers and afford valuable data when promotions are considered.

The purpose of the efficiency record is to prevent employés from falling into lax habits of work and discipline. Just how far this surveillance is beneficial is open to question. Some objection has been made on the score that the markings necessarily depend upon the administrative officer's individual judgment, whereas other officers would credit other markings for the same work, that it tends toward unmanliness and servility, and that it even may result in dishonesty by forcing an employé to adopt an attitude of pretence. Opposed to these objections it may be strongly stated as a fact that many persons enter the public service in the full belief that they will not be required to perform much actual work, a belief that has special reference to clerical and subclerical assignments. The efficiency record acts as a healthy check to such ideas and doubtless

develops many freshmen into excellent employés. New appointees coming from commercial offices are likely to sneer at Government methods for the first few months of their official life, a practice that does not improve their efficiency in the least; when employés of this type are shown their efficiency record they often protest and boast of their capacity. It is then that the beneficial effects of the record become apparent.

As illustrating the high grade of efficiency maintained in Federal offices it is only necessary to cite the single case of railway mail clerks, a hard-worked and moderately-paid class of employés. The average number of pieces of mail matter distributed by each clerk is about 1,500,000 each year. The errors in distribution amount to but one in each 11,000 pieces handled. Comment is not necessary.

Laziness, incompetency, and lack of attention are not as a general thing tolerated under the merit system. On the other hand integrity, industry, faithfulness to duty, and capacity for performing good work do not in themselves constitute a standard for filling high positions. These excellent qualifications fit one for doing work under another's supervision or attending to details of a merely routine nature; but they are not enough to qualify one for filling the higher positions. Places requiring executive ability involve a number of other considerations, such as judgment, tact, firmness, and experience.

Whether these virtues can be cultivated or not is a question for the psychologist to solve; there is no doubt that many persons possess them unknown to themselves or to any one else and that they can be developed if opportunity offer.

A person may be ever so industrious and faithful and attain a high degree of efficiency in a subordinate position, and yet be a complete and hopeless failure in an executive capacity. Then again, one may be utterly inefficient in handling details, but possess a degree of judgment, tact, and individuality that will make him eminently successful as an executive officer. Or, an employé may be uncongenially assigned and become so discontented and discouraged that he is rendered almost totally inefficient; he sees his hopes unrealized and his ambitions killed, conditions which are sure to react unfavorably on himself and his fellow office-holders. Executive officers do not always perceive the cause of dissatisfaction in their subordinates, though a shrewd chief will not be slow to apply the best corrective measures in his power. Unfortunately these corrective measures often take the direction of the efficiency record and consist of low ratings. So the efficiency records as conducted in the departments, it will be seen, are elastic and uncertain.

Employés can do a great deal to elevate themselves if they go about it in the right way. If a place be found uncongenial or the work distasteful the proper course is to state the conditions frankly

to the officer in charge, who will usually appreciate it and make an effort to adjust conditions, inasmuch as it is to the interest of every official to have his subordinates cheerful and satisfied. Of course this action will not be the best in certain cases. Chiefs in some instances will make the first move toward removal from the service when an employé goes to him with such a fair and frank confession. Discretion and judgment must be exercised in every case, action depending upon the individuality of the executive officer. Some chiefs are exceedingly easy to approach and give patient attention; others care nothing for suggestions from their subordinates, and for an employé to admit lack of interest to such an executive would be the signal for an indignant outburst. An exhibition of anger or resentment toward a subordinate is a serious step for an official inasmuch as, under departmental regulations, officers and employés are cautioned to be courteous and considerate at all times.

If an employé, no matter how high or how low in rank in the merit system, feels that he has been badly treated he should lay the facts before the chief of his bureau or the secretary of his department. This usually results in an amicable adjustment. Employés should be particularly careful in charging their superiors with any kind of delinquency and only do so with proof in hand that would be acceptable before a court of law. A mere assertion that such-and-such is true is

worthless if unsupported by evidence. A large majority of the charges brought by subordinates are filed as a result of personal animosity and have no foundation in fact. Subordinates sometimes imagine that their chiefs are unnecessarily hard and exacting. Cheerfulness and willingness in the performance of duty will usually correct any unpleasantness of that kind. It is well to keep in mind at all times that the work performed is for the United States and not for an individual, and that the relations are not those of master and servant but that of servants in a common cause.

Government officials, as a rule, are very much more liberal and considerate in their treatment of subordinates than executives in similar positions in commercial life. Cases now and then arise, however, in which administrative officers assume too much authority in their relations with subordinates or act with the commercial idea of getting the last iota of work from the employés under their direction. The average man will gladly give his best energies if well treated, but is quick to resent if imposed upon. An officious and over-exacting executive is sure to fail in maintaining a high standard of discipline and the efficiency of his office is consequently lowered. A wise chief will avoid misunderstandings and discontent, a policy that is well repaid in the quantity and quality of work turned out. Should the efficiency of any employé reach such a low stage that he becomes of little value, it is the

administrative officer's duty to file charges against him.

REMOVAL FROM OFFICE.—The merit system presents fewer barriers to removal from office than is popularly supposed. People at large are well-nigh a unit in believing that appointment to a Federal post in the civil service is equivalent to a life position. This notion is well founded owing to the long tenure of office usually enjoyed by public employés.

The key to the whole civil-service system is efficiency. Rules are made and regulations promulgated with this sole object in view. Therefore when it appears that the good of the service demands a change in the personnel, no incumbent is arbitrarily protected by any rule or regulation. Life-tenure of office does not arise through any provision of the civil-service regulations. As a matter of fact it sometimes happens that public employés are legislated out of office by the consolidation of work or by the Congress failing to provide for an appropriation. The civil-service law does not assure life-tenure by any means, not even during good behavior, and provides no barrier whatever against removal from office except political causes. Moreover, the Civil Service Commission, entrusted with the enforcement of the civil-service law, has no authority in removal cases except when it is alleged that the removal is sought for political or religious reasons or that irregular proceedings were had.

Cause for removal from a civil-service position exists whenever the good of the public service demands it, and the "good of the service" is something that rests entirely in the judgment of the appointing officer. Some one must be in a position to say in what respect the discipline or efficiency of an office warrrants dismissal for the good of the service, and no one can better pass upon the conduct of an office than the executive in charge. The chief of a bureau or head of an office is responsible for results within his jurisdiction and it follows that he is the best judge of what constitutes cause.

Cause for dismissal is a matter of individual cases, as in private business. What is far from cause in one office may be a serious offence in another. For example: a bureau may have no rules against public discussion of its work; yet if one of its employés repeated in public certain things that took place there and so brought trouble upon the bureau it is readily seen that it would constitute a serious offence and be enough to justify the administrative head in filing charges against him. Again, an employé might intentionally violate the rules of his office and yet do it in a way that no harm would come.

Inefficiency and misconduct constitute cause for removal, but the offences must in all cases be definite. Broadly speaking, anything that will tend to bring the service into disrepute is sufficient cause for removal. This may be in-

attention to duty, a breach of rules, crime, misdemeanor, or any kind of delinquency occurring either during or outside of official hours.

The tendency is to restrict appointment, not removal. The power of removal is almost unlimited, and rests with the President and his representatives, and not with the executive officer in direct charge. The heads of departments make appointments and therefore make dismissals, usually upon the recommendation of the executive officer in immediate control. The President and heads of departments may summarily dismiss any one guilty of misconduct when the offence is committed in their presence; in other cases the practice is to require that charges be filed by the officer in direct control.

The filing of charges against any person holding office in the civil service is a serious step. It matters little whether the person sought to be removed holds a high or a low position, the individual bringing the charge must be prepared to substantiate his allegations by proof admissible in a court of law and by no other. Hearsay evidence, surmise, and presumption are insufficient; for, while the heads of departments are not required by law to take testimony from either the accused or the complainant, it is a matter of justice widely recognized and carrying a heavy burden of precedent that the accused be given an opportunity to defend himself. As in law, the accused is presumed to be innocent

until proven guilty and the burden of proof rests upon the complaining party. Failure to substantiate charges usually results in a penalty being imposed upon the complainant; the penalty rests with the head of the department and may take a wide variety of forms, ranging from the gentlest reprimand to removal from the Federal service.

If a supervising officer believes the removal of an employé within his jurisdiction will promote the efficiency of the service he may suspend the employé pending the filing of charges and report the suspension to the secretary of the department for approval. Immediately upon suspension he files his charges with the secretary, citing the specific offence and accompanying it by a recommendation for removal. The accused is furnished a copy of the charges and is given three days, or, in the case of post-office clerks, ten days, in which to reply to the charges counting from the time a copy of the charges is officially delivered to him; in replying he may deny *in toto*, demand proof, or offer explanation or countercharges as he may wish. Upon receipt of his reply the head of the department, or officials acting under his direction, will consider both sides of the controversy. If it is believed worth while a rigid inquiry may be instituted covering a wide field; if circumstances do not appear to warrant this, steps commensurate with the importance of the case are taken and the difference

adjusted. It is always a serious reflection upon a supervising officer's executive ability to fail in substantiating his allegations or to prefer trivial charges.

It will be seen from this that appointment to a civil-service position erects no barrier whatever against removal and is no guarantee of life tenure. Persons ambitious of securing Government posts should fully understand this and be warned against seeking Federal office in the hope that such appointments offer a convenient and easy means of securing a permanent income. Appointment to a civil-service position creates no legal claim upon the place, and mandamus proceedings looking to a reinstatement after dismissal for cause are of no avail. Removal does not, in itself, bar one from future public employment except in the case of offences that would bar one from original appointment.

Removal from the civil service on account of religion or politics is illegal. It sometimes happens that removal is sought on political grounds, the charges citing other reasons. So when an attempt is made to secure an employé's dismissal it is well for the accused to look behind the charges, if he feel that he has properly and efficiently performed his duties. If reasonably sure that the real cause is a political one he should reduce all the facts to writing and submit them to the Civil Service Commission, which will undertake an investigation. Reasonable certainty of

the true conditions should exist before instituting any counter-charges.

It is unwise to be precipitate in filing charges against any one. Hasty action usually indicates anger and makes a bad matter worse. Differences can generally be adjusted by tact and an honest desire to remedy them. A great deal of provocation should exist and other means be exhausted before steps are taken looking to one's removal from the public service; for it will be borne in mind that, while centralization of authority must prevail in public as in private business, the principles of popular government are not founded upon arbitrary or dictatorial impulse. The administrative officer, as well as the employé, should be slow to accuse and should eliminate the personal equation entirely, keeping constantly in view the fact that the common welfare demands harmony in public affairs.

Abuses.—It cannot be denied that there are some abuses in the merit system just as there are abuses under any system of civic administration, though in smaller ratio. The abuses that arise are generally due to the personal element prevailing over public duty. The individual is inclined to promote his own interests rather than those of the public, and in accepting office it is hardly to be expected that this inclination can be altogether dropped. In administering public office or performing public work it is every one's plain duty to labor for the common

good. This is not observed as it should be under the merit system, though the regulations promulgated by the heads of various departments call for it.

It is not uncommon for executive officers to require more or less personal service from public employés. This practice is not due to the system so much as to human nature, and for this reason it is one almost impossible to correct. Personal service, not meaning by that term menial service, is a recognized custom in almost every kind of business. The clerk in the commercial office is more than anxious to perform some service for his immediate superior in the hope of gaining that superior's good opinion and friendship. The same desire to curry favor penetrates the Government office, whether in Washington or thousands of miles distant, and it is practised for the same purpose—either to obtain promotion or desirable assignments.

This unquenchable desire to create a favorable impression upon superiors is the root of many of the cliques and cabals whose machinations are sometimes published in the newspapers.

Subordinates cannot be censured for readily and willingly complying with the personal requests of superiors when it is recalled that an executive officer has it in his power to grant or withhold favors; nor can it be wondered at that they fail to report such evident infractions of departmental regulations when it is further remembered that

talebearing is not in high esteem. Then again, it would be ridiculous, to say the least, for a minor employé to report his chief's practice of requiring personal service to higher administrative officers who themselves are sometimes involved in similar shortcomings.

The material for speeches, interviews, magazine articles, and scientific papers, issued as the personal work of Government officials, are sometimes largely the work of clerks. It is rare indeed for a stenographer to escape being asked to do some personal correspondence for his superiors, using the Government time and stationery in the execution of the work. Some clerks are called upon to attend to various business transactions for their superiors, make social appointments, and otherwise perform work solely within the province of a private secretary. A large part of the scientific articles published in technical journals by Government officers are typewritten, edited, and proof-read by Government clerks. Some officials go so far as to refer to "my" clerk or "my" stenographer in their personal correspondence and social relations, when the truth is that the subordinate has not reached the dignity of a private secretary or confidential clerk.

Employés who perform personal services naturally come in for a larger share of favors than the ordinary plodder who is either too conscientious or too talkative to entrust with personal matters. It therefore follows that they are not going to

object to such private commissions and have no desire to stir up trouble when they find their own positions so well lubricated and their opportunities for advancement so brightened. It is the employé who is never asked to do personal work for his superiors that complains.

Practices of this kind are not in strict accordance with the principles of the merit system; but it must be said, in justice to all concerned, that the public interests do not always suffer under these conditions. Personal work done in Government offices is a hard thing to justify, looked at from the most favorable side. The practice receives a setback at irregular intervals by departmental or Presidential order, when examples are made of the more conspicuous offenders. These spasmodic outbursts of civic virtue are soon forgotten in human nature's demand to get something for nothing; the fences are gradually thrown down rail by rail and the cattle are again back in their pasture.

Political Activity.—Within very late years political activity was a distinct abuse in the Government service, this activity consisting of levying tribute upon Federal employés for the maintenance of party campaigns, failure to pay making it quite uncertain for the delinquent employé. Owing to rigid enforcement of the law, this practice has now all but totally died out so far as civil-service employés are concerned. Employés can no longer hope for promotion because

of liberal campaign contributions, as under the spoils system.

Outside of Federal buildings employés may give any financial aid they desire; they may attend political meetings, and fulfil all such civic duties as are expected from good citizens; but under no circumstances must they make themselves obnoxious or be pernicious in party service. All political work that is incompatible with their official duties is denied. President Roosevelt has concisely covered the Federal employé's political status by stating that

> The man in the classified service, while retaining his right to vote as he pleases and to express privately his opinions on all political subjects, "should not take any active part in political management or in political campaigns, for precisely the same reasons that a judge, an army officer, a regular soldier, or a policeman is debarred from taking such active part."

The Attorney-General on November 22, 1901, addressed a letter to officers and employés in the Department of Justice upon the subject of political activity. He said:

> The spirit of the civil-service law and rules renders it highly undesirable for Federal officers and employés to take an active part in political conventions or in the direction of other parts of political machinery. Persons in the Government service . . . should not act as chairman of political organizations, nor make themselves unduly prominent in local political

matters. It is expected and required that all officers and employés of this Department shall act in entire conformity with the views herein set forth.

These strictures upon political activity apply to members of the classified service only and have no relation to other executive office-holders so long as they do not use their positions to control the political status of the merit system. One might think that this is discrimination against the classified employé by taking away his political freedom. In reality, the discrimination, if any, is in the classified employé's favor, for, while he is prevented from becoming a political agitator, he is also protected from the over-zealous politician who formerly preyed upon the Government clerk for campaign contributions and political services. The plan of stopping political agitation has been of inestimable value in promoting the general efficiency of the civil service.

SUPERANNUATION.—A problem that now confronts the merit system is that of inefficiency resulting from old age. The civil-service regulations provide ample authority for reductions in salary and removal in any case of inefficiency, including that brought on by age; but, in view of the manifest injustice involved in the execution of these provisions in the case of employés who have spent the best years of their life in Federal service, they are practically null. Growing old in any honorable service is, in itself, a most excellent and commendable example, especially in view of the

restless nature of Americans. Corporations are coming more and more to appreciate the service of old employés and are providing various kinds of pension funds for retirement. It has been found that the prospect of retirement at a reasonable age proves an incentive for good conduct and attention to business, and that the resulting increased efficiency more than pays for the pension fund. Pension, profit-sharing or co-operation in some form, as a business proposition, pays.

The United States Government has several thousand aged employés on its salary rolls, many of whom undoubtedly render efficient service, and the number is fast increasing year by year. Already some offices find their work seriously interfered with because of the tottering step and the uncertain hand of infirm employés. In the majority of cases, these old men have served the Government from young manhood. To dismiss them with no provision for their declining years would be heartless and savor of the worst form of money-greed. The farm-horse, broken down with years, has the freedom of the pasture; the old watch-dog finds a warm place by his master's fireside. Sentiment rebels at injustice; and so the aged employés are carried upon the public pay-roll principally for what they have done. In many cases their compensation is out of all proportion to their meagre services, in others they are a direct hindrance to the promotion of younger and more efficient men; but there is an

unwritten law that rightly decrees that these old servants of the public shall not be turned adrift.

The Quartermaster General of the Army[1] puts the conditions in the following words:

> The higher grades of clerkship are almost entirely filled by men who have been for years in the service and have long passed the age at which men are most efficient in the performance of such duties. With few exceptions these gained the grades they now hold through ability and merit, and for years returned for the salaries received, full value or better in services rendered. Having now reached the point in life where they are no longer able to do this, the burden of the work passes on to the younger clerks, with only the remote possibility of also securing the pay therefor through the death, reduction, or discharge of the older men. No man, I believe, with the slightest appreciation of the loyalty of these old, tried, and faithful employés will urge that they should be discharged, and a reduction in salary is so disheartening to them as to render nugatory their services after such action. No matter how kindly the necessity is explained to them, reduction is a severe blow, with a lasting sting keenly felt by the worthy ones who have reached the period where, through the limitations of nature, retirement ought to come.
>
> If they are retained in the grades attained by merit in the period when they could and did do all or more than their duty, the effect on the younger clerks who then do the work is depressing in the

[1] *Ann. Rept. Quartermaster-General, U. S. A.*, 1905, p. 65.

extreme. Some provision for retiring the old clerks ought to be made. More good effects on administration would probably come through provision for retirement than any other one action that could now be taken, and its effect would doubtless prove as beneficial as did the establishment of the merit system.

Nearly all first-class foreign Governments retire civil employés on a pension at a stated age, much like the military pension system in America; but our country is a conspicuous exception to this practice. It is a tenet of democracy that class and caste have no place in its institutions, and civil pensions are now expressly prohibited by Federal statute. Up to within recent years, the establishment of a civil list was looked upon as the first step toward the fixture of class upon America. Sentiment is undergoing a rapid change with increased necessity, and, judging from present indications, the day is not far distant when some kind of a fund will be provided for taking care of aged civilian Government employés. Numerous plans have been advocated, ranging from a percentage retention of each employé's salary to direct appropriation of Treasury funds. There is at present a flourishing civil-retirement association with headquarters in Washington. The membership of this association is not composed entirely of old men, but numbers many ambitious young men and high officials in its ranks. The association purposes to educate public thought and enlist the help of the Congress.

In connection with the problem of superannuation, a glance at the following figures will prove interesting. The table shows the percentage of persons holding competitive positions in relation to their respective ages, grouped in decennial periods. There is no reason for believing that the percentages will materially change, though a slight rise in the case of the older employés may be expected as the young office-holders grow old in the service.

Age	*Percentage*
Under 20 years	1.6 %
20 to 30 years	24.6 %
30 to 40 years	33.5 %
40 to 50 years	21.1 %
50 to 60 years	10.1 %
60 to 70 years	5.9 %
70 years and over	1.4 %

INEQUALITIES.—A serious flaw in the merit system is the unequal distribution of work. For example: Of ten clerks receiving $1800 a year, selected at random in Federal offices, scarcely half will be found to perform similar duties. Some of the ten will be compelled to perform work of a character that should net them twice their salary, while others will be engaged in routine duties that could be done by beginners in the class of junior clerks of manufacturing or railroad offices.

Inequalities of work and salary are the natural

outgrowth of a ponderous machine, and are attributable to no one cause and certainly to no individual or group of individuals. Upon the organization of a new bureau or department, estimates are prepared to cover the work proposed, but contingencies are bound to arise that could not by any possible means have been foreseen. These contingencies must be taken care of by increased effort on the part of somebody. Again, work sometimes has a natural decrease in volume, involving a corresponding lessening of duties.

In whatsoever way the inequalities originate, they are a source of disaffection and complaint among employés. Moreover, it must be admitted that an employé can scarcely be expected to experience gratification upon learning that his friends in other branches of the public service receive better pay for performing work of much less importance than that which falls to him. This dissatisfaction has resulted in considerable annoyance to a number of offices, whose employés seek other positions where the rewards are more in keeping with the duties performed.

Various plans for correcting inequalities have been suggested; but, owing to the vast ramifications of the Federal service, it has been found impossible to do more than adjust individual cases. Any sweeping change would doubtless result in more inequalities than at present exist. Even if it were found possible to make an equitable

distribution of work in accordance with the compensation received, the natural ebb and flow of public business would soon throw the adjustment out of balance. So at present each bureau is expected to distribute its work among the employés to suit its own requirements, independent of the conditions elsewhere.

HOURS OF WORK.—The law requires at least seven hours' work per day from all employés. This is the minimum and may be extended when the public exigencies require it. Extra work performed by salaried employés does not entitle them to additional pay in the event they are paid by the year or month; it does, however, in the case of per diem, per hour, or piecework employés. Refusal to perform additional work when the public business requires it is cause for removal from the service. Extra work is seldom required, as it is not considered good policy to impose additional work upon employés, but rather to make enough new appointments to perform the work within the allotted seven hours.

Thirty days' annual vacation with pay, exclusive of Sundays and holidays, is usually granted. Postal employés and certain per diem employés are only granted fifteen days' vacation; most per diem employés receive no leave of absence with pay. Leave with pay may be extended fifteen or thirty days in the event of sickness. Thus, a department clerk may take thirty days' leave of absence with pay, and in the event he has a

protracted illness he may take thirty more days as sick leave.

Leave of absence is not a right, but a privilege. Like extension of working hours, it may be withheld when the exigencies require it, and this is sometimes done. In this case an office-holder has no recourse. Leave of absence is not cumulative in the civil-service and must be taken within the year and at the time granted. Employés are expected to make application for leave of absence, specifying the period when wanted. The entire period allowed may be taken at one time, or a day or more at a time. All absence during official hours is charged against the annual leave.

CHAPTER V

PREPARATION

PREPARATION is the foundation of success. It is the weapon that enables man to lay hold upon success. Without preparation all effort is vain, time is wasted, and disappointment is the harvest. The unshod foot receives the bruises.

It matters not what a man would be, he must be prepared if he expect any degree of success. The clergyman must be prepared to preach, the physician must have knowledge of remedies to enable him to heal, the lawyer must be versed in law if he would win cases; the merchant must understand the art of buying and selling, the carpenter must be able to handle tools or be idle, the laborer must have a strong body if he would wring wealth from the soil. Even the heir to riches must be prepared to take care of his inheritance or the increment will elude his insecure grasp. The rule of preparation has no exception, and it pertains with double force to those who would serve their country, whether at arms or in the quieter pursuits of peace. It involves every position under the Government from the President

to the charwoman, and is the note sounding success for the merit system.

The untrained man finds the doors closed to him everywhere, but when he turns to the civil service he finds them barred and padlocked. It is useless to advance excuses for lack of preparation. It matters not what the excuse is; the Government has work to do and will have men competent to do it.

The conditions of securing appointment under the merit system are now so exacting and the tests so rigid that it is absolutely useless to go unprepared to the examination room. Whatever position it is hoped to fill, whether on the continent or in America's possessions beyond the seas, the man or the woman with negative qualities is not wanted. The tests of fitness begin with the lowest position and increase through every grade to the highest. Many of the lower positions require but simple tests of character and physical strength, while in the higher places men of wide learning and thorough training only are accepted. Some places require not only learning and training, but in addition demand specialization.

Let no one who hopes to make a success in Government service deceive himself by thinking that by some hook or crook he will stumble upon a career. There are flaws in our governmental system, as there are in all things, and in the methods of administering it; but whatever the mistakes of the past and the inequalities of the

present, America has long passed her stumbling age. The adventurer, the experimenter, the play-actor find no niche for their figures. This Government is a ponderous, complicated machine whose parts work together for the common good. When the usefulness of any branch becomes impaired, it is overhauled, and in making repairs it is certain that the worn-out parts are not going to be replaced by others equally bad; nor is driftwood used in building additions to the growing structure.

FOLLOWING A PURPOSE.—In preparing for Government service, whether within or without the merit system, a number of conditions should be given consideration, that the highest success may be attained. As in any other career, some definite goal should be kept in mind. Men having an ambition to fill high office under the Government usually keep a particular object in view, such as honor, opportunity for self-development, or a desire for power. Men taking up work with any of these objects before them are invariably prepared to overcome every obstacle that may interfere with their purpose; it is not necessary to throw out any suggestions for their preparation, for they to a man realize how necessary it is to be prepared.

On the other hand, it is safe to say that not one person in a hundred, perhaps not one in a thousand, of those who contemplate entering the civil service have any clear idea of what they hope

ultimately to attain. In a big majority of the cases, Government service is inviting because it appears to offer pleasant, easy, and genteel work, carrying with it a double remuneration in money and prestige. It is rare indeed to find any but the most befogged notions of a career or a purpose to be followed. This is particularly true of those who have not been brought into contact with office-holders or the workings of the Government; for these a romance penetrates the whole Federal system, and they forthwith decide to enter the public service. Their first step is to find some person who can tell them when, where, and how to make application for a position; this information having been gained, their next step is to file an application for examination, then take the examination—all without a purpose, except a vague romantic hope of securing a Federal appointment.

This is not as it should be. A few moments' thought will convince any one that neither the Government nor the individual can reap the benefits that would accrue to both were applicants to look well over the field and, following their natural bent, strive for a certain position; then, having reached this decision, to keep it constantly in mind and bend every energy to accomplish this end. As one's experience and grasp of Federal affairs broaden, there is at times the strongest temptation to abandon old ambitions and take up new ones leading to more promising fields.

Temptations of this kind should be regarded with suspicion and investigated before changing ambitions. Haste in deciding upon any field of Government service should be guarded against, for mistakes are more easily avoided than corrected several years afterward. When Government service is contemplated, it is well to go slowly in filing an application for examination.

There is such a variety of positions under the Government that almost any person can find one for which he is especially suited; time used in looking up these places will prove a good investment and often save disappointment. Natural fitness is an excellent monitor in the matter of choosing appointment.

This does not mean that one's highest ambition must be abandoned for something commonplace. The high ambition is the one thing to be kept in mind and all else made to serve as a means of attaining that end; but entrance in the Government service cannot always be in the coveted place. A machinist should not hastily prepare himself for a stenographic position; the stenographer, on the other hand, should not attempt an examination for a position as chief of division without the experience and preparation that such posts require. It is absolutely necessary that one be master of the work covered by the position to which he seeks appointment.

Choosing a Field.—The proper course to pursue in preparing for a civil-service examination is

to write to the Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C., for one of their Manuals of Examination. This manual describes a large number of positions and gives in a general way a list of the subjects in which the applicant will be examined. A careful study of the manual should be made to gain familiarity with as many points as possible. It is not infrequently the case that a person is fitted for more than one kind of position, in which event he may take an examination for each place for which he is qualified and so have a double chance of securing an appointment. For instance, a man may be qualified as an editorial clerk and at the same time possess a sufficient knowledge of stenography and mathematics to make him useful to the Government in a number of positions. Such a person could, with perfect consistency, take an examination for editorial clerk, one for stenographer and typewriter, and another for computer. A glance over the manual may disclose a variety of positions for which the only preparation necessary is a little academic review.

EXAMINATIONS ARE PRACTICAL.—It is supposed in a good many quarters that the examinations put up by the Civil Service Commission are not practical, that they consist of learned questions that nobody but those fresh from college can answer, and that they have no practical bearing upon the actual duties of the positions which they cover. One cannot disabuse his mind of this idea too quickly or too thoroughly.

A quarter of a century's experience has developed the practical side of examinations to an extent truly surprising. The questions put out are not intended to be ambiguous or traplike; they are what any one versed in the subjects covered can answer with plain common-sense. It is not necessary to go into the world of conundrums for answers. It is necessary, however, to be prepared; and this preparation is not to be gained by two or three evenings spent in cramming. The preparation must be based on more than memory. Any one desiring to put himself into shape for passing a civil-service examination must go over the list of what he lacks and learn it; and this learning must be done thoroughly and intelligently.

Nearly all examinations comprising tests in educational fitness have as their basis what are known as "grade" subjects. These grade or basic subjects are divided into three classes, according to their degree of difficulty, the first grade ranking highest. Whether the examination be for the position of messenger or scientific expert, a series of grade subjects is given. Therefore, it is quite important that the applicant for a civil-service position pay some attention to the grade subjects. The Civil Service Manual will tell him what grade subjects are required in the particular examination he expects to take, and he will prepare himself accordingly.

It is not well to depend too much upon past

accomplishments in taking examinations in grade subjects, as the questions are not always easy to answer even for one who has had extensive preparation. A thorough review of the subjects should be undertaken before the candidate presents himself for examination, for it will be remembered that failure in the grade subjects disqualifies him for appointment, though he pass in the optional subjects relating to his special line.

FIRST GRADE.— Subjects of this grade usually form the basis of examinations for clerical and higher places. They are as follows:

1. SPELLING.—Usually twenty words of more than average difficulty, dictated by the examiner who defines each word as he gives it out. Such words as the following are given: Discernible, facilitate, lineage, privilege, ambuscade, disqualify, ambiguity, precede, acidity, susceptibility, asperity, mollify, inadvertent, admissible, delineate, academic, fascinate, freely, nursery, license, etc. Any high-school graduate should be able to spell any word given in the first-grade spelling.

2. ARITHMETIC.—Five problems covering fundamental rules, common fractions, decimal fractions, mixed fractions, mensuration, United States money, percentage, profit and loss, partnership, brokerage, insurance, interest, partial payments, stocks and bonds, simple discount, bank discount, present worth, and statement of simple accounts. Any one expecting to present himself

for examination should study his arithmetic if he be unfamiliar with these subjects. Weakness in arithmetic is sure to work to an applicant's disadvantage.

3. PENMANSHIP.—In the words of the Civil Service Commission, this subject is marked upon "legibility, rapidity, neatness, and general appearance." Unless one's penmanship is very bad he should not waste his time in practising on this subject, for his time can be put to better use in the review of more important subjects. Strained, cramped, stilted, or otherwise restrained penmanship should be avoided. Beautiful handwriting is largely a matter of natural talent, and to undertake its cultivation within a few weeks or months borders on the ridiculous. He has to be a good penman indeed who attains a rating of eighty-five, and extraordinarily poor to fall below seventy. The examiners themselves are far from perfect in penmanship, but otherwise of high attainments; all of which goes far to show that penmanship has little to do with learning and ability.

4. LETTER-WRITING.—This subject is not difficult for persons who have had newspaper or literary training, but proves a hard nut to crack for many others. Even the man with commercial training finds considerable trouble in writing a letter that pleases the civil-service examiners. The commercialisms, which applicants from business offices use so freely, have no place in Government correspondence. Anything that savors of

stiffness or confusion in either words or ideas makes a poor letter. There are many good works on letter-writing which it would be well for the unpractised to study before taking an examination.

5. COPYING FROM ROUGH DRAFT.—This exercise is designed to test the applicant's ability to make smooth copy out of a jumble of interlineations, corrections, and additions as may be seen from the example reproduced on the opposite page. These "rough drafts" are well named. They are common throughout Government offices, due to two reasons: Inco-ordination of thought, and a desire to produce polished work. Many of the rough drafts evolved by correspondents and authors are peculiarly ingenious in their confusion. There is absolutely no rule but that of watchfulness to be followed in deciphering them. Outside of the publishing house and the Government office there is practically no place where experience can be gained. Stenographers of wide experience will have no difficulty with the rough draft; as for the others, the only watchword is care, repeated twice over. In a general way it may be said that all inconsistencies of punctuation, orthography, and syntax must be corrected and the sense preserved.

SECOND GRADE.—The subjects of this grade are the same as those of the first grade but less difficult, and copying from plain copy is substituted for copying from the rough draft.

1. SPELLING.—Twenty fairly difficult words,

~~[illegible]~~ warrant, the apportionment of such appointments among the several states and territories and the D. C. upon the basis of population" ~~[illegible]~~ Org. district was ~~given up~~ abandoned.

with the intention of ascertaining the apportionment of employees in the District of Columbia on ~~June~~ July 31 1903

such as masculine, freedom, trying, seldom, philosophy, factory, consistent, experimental, excision, annexation, infinity, hygienic, etc.

2. ARITHMETIC.—Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, common and decimal fractions, mensuration, United States money.

3. LETTER-WRITING.—One of two given subjects will be chosen by the competitor, who will be required to write a letter of 125 words. The same care as indicated in the first-grade subjects should govern.

4. PENMANSHIP.—Neatness, legibility, rapidity, and general appearance are considered.

5. COPYING FROM PLAIN COPY.—The competitor will be expected to make an exact copy of a short article given him by the examiner, observing capitalization, punctuation, paragraphs, errors, and inconsistencies, and copying them exactly as they appear.

THIRD GRADE.—This grade is designed for subclerical positions requiring some educational qualifications, such as that of messenger. Persons who have had the schooling of an ordinary fourteen-year-old boy should have no difficulty in passing. The same subjects as in the second grade are used, each being much less rigid.

1. SPELLING.—Twenty easy words, such as final, broaden, expect, guess, farther, treatment, subtraction, promise, division.

2. ARITHMETIC.—Addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and United States money.

Fractions and anything higher are not required.

3. LETTER-WRITING.—This exercise is designed to test the applicant's use of simple English. It is not expected that a skilfully-constructed and finely-worded letter will be submitted as in the case of the first grade.

4. PENMANSHIP.—The same requirements as in the first and second grades, with more leniency in marking.

5. COPYING FROM PLAIN COPY.—The same as in the second grade, except that the matter to be copied is usually easier and simpler.

The grade subjects are sometimes varied according to the examination; but whatever other subjects are required it is well to pay some attention to arithmetic and letter-writing, owing to the fact that knowledge of both is needed in every position above the mechanical trades.

At irregular intervals, as the country expands or new legislation is enacted, the Government calls for men qualified in commercial pursuits or economic interests, and special examinations are held to fill the vacancies. Positions of this kind embrace a wide variety of inspectorships, commissionerships, and special employment. As may be surmised, preparation for positions in this class consists principally of experience which only time and attention to work in former positions can give. All, however, require an academic examination, the basis of which is the first-grade examination. A thesis is usually called for to test

the candidate's skill in expressing his ideas clearly and concisely, a necessity required in official correspondence and in making reports of progress.

However well qualified a man may be in his particular specialty, it is hardly creditable to the Government to engage his services if he cannot write good English. So when a man engaged in industrial pursuits decides to take up Government service he should prepare himself to pass the first-grade examination and to write a thesis of 300 to 1000 words. As fluency in writing only comes from practice, he should act accordingly in the event he has had no extensive experience in English composition. This experience is not to be gained from text-books on rhetoric or grammar, but from actual composition.

WRITING A THESIS.—A thesis is nothing but a "composition." The schoolboy's composition on "Sugar" is as much a thesis as the chemist's composition on "Cholin Derivatives" or the physician's learned disquisition on "Radio-therapy in Relation to the *Bacillus leprœ*." Many applicants take fright at the word "thesis." There is nothing at all mysterious in the word; it is simply a high-sounding term supplanting the old-fashioned word "composition." So, forgetting all reverence for the word "thesis," the novice at writing English may perform wonders with intelligent practice.

Assuming that a high-grade clerk in a commercial office is ambitious of Government service,

but lacks the capacity to write a thesis on a given subject with which he is reasonably familiar, his proper course is to practise writing theses until he has a good command of English. It may take a year or more of hard work before he can write anything satisfactory. By following a few simple rules, however, he will find the task less burdensome and the results much better. These rules are as follows:

1. FAMILIARITY WITH THE SUBJECT.—The applicant is usually assigned three topics bearing upon the particular subject in which he is to be examined, from which he may select one. From this it will be seen that familiarity with the subject depends upon familiarity with his occupation.

2. ARRANGEMENT OF IDEAS BEFORE CONSIGNING THEM TO PAPER.—Ideas should have logical arrangement and bear relation to each other. Disconnected sentences look worse on paper than when spoken, and the reader's confusion is consequently greater. Ambiguities and repetition of words or ideas are out of place. The more simply the thoughts are expressed the better.

3. CONFINEMENT TO THE SUBJECT.—This is an art. One may be a skilful writer and his use of English entitle him to high rank in literature; but if he wander far from the subject his usefulness in writing Government papers will be reduced to total inefficiency. Rambling and padding must be avoided.

4. REGULAR PRACTICE AT COMPOSITION.—A

daily practice of one hour continued for six months will generally result in an ability to produce readable articles. Constant practice is the thing that develops newspaper reporters, and the same rule holds true in the case of writers in other lines of work. A careful and intelligent "write-up" on, say, twenty-five titles may mean the discovery of dormant talent. The ironclad rule is regularity.

Following these four rules, a clerk in a railroad office should write upon such subjects as "Railroad Systems of the United States," "Tariffs," "The Railroad as a Common Carrier," "Public Ownership," etc. A man in the iron trade would take up subjects relating to his business; among them would be "Supply and Demand," "Cost Accounts," "Corporate Rights," "Competition with Foreign Producers," and similar topics. A bank clerk would write on "Negotiable Paper," "The Dependence of the Country's Prosperity upon National Financial Policies," "The Relationship between Savings Banks, National Banks, and Trust Companies," and so on. The subjects to be selected are endless and vary with occupations. By selecting a dozen titles and writing close to the subject, facility in writing will come unconsciously and a store of information will be gained in the process; and it is to be remembered that one cannot possess too much information.

The Civil Service Commission requires much better theses in their examinations than the

English in the average Government report, and the standard of thesis-writing is being raised. It is advisable that persons seeking appointment to the best positions in the civil service learn the use of good English.

Copying from books or magazines is not thesis-writing, nor is the use of other persons' thoughts. When selecting a subject, it is well to choose an unfamiliar phase of the work in which the writer is engaged. Having chosen a subject, it should be studied and investigated before a pen is touched to the paper; then the thought expressed will bear the signs of originality and the composition of the thesis proceed from a logical beginning to a logical ending. Set phrases, commercialisms, and awkward word combinations should be avoided; these always look laborious and detract from the interest of an otherwise good article. Short, concise sentences are the best; they are easier to write, easier to read, and easier to understand.

Training Schools.—Every trade and every calling has its system of preliminary training to equip men and women for the work. The wider the field the more training schools are necessary. The professional man, the technical aspirant, the commercialist, and the skilled mechanic have spent years at training schools in securing their educational equipment for life's career. Hundreds upon hundreds of trades, commercial, and fine arts schools flourish in this country. It matters little what occupation a man would take up,

he can have the benefit of training in his special line; the best instructors that the country affords are ready to help the ambitious man. But there is one singular exception to this.

There is no school in this country providing a thorough course of instruction in Government practice. Candidates entering the public service have to be trained in the theories and practice of Government after they have secured appointment, a system that is often costly and time-consuming to the Government as well as to the employé. The only institutions providing collegiate courses for Federal service are those operated by the fighting arm of the Government—West Point and Annapolis. The civil service, providing thousands of well-paying and honorable positions, is an establishment that would seem to be an especially attractive one for educators to exploit. Well-prepared and liberally-educated persons are always at a premium and command the best posts in the civil service.

Perhaps a college course specializing in Government service would be criticised by our democratic people as tending toward the establishment of a favored class. However that may be, the benefits to be derived from such instruction are scarcely open to doubt. Persons seeking special preparation for entry into the public service are now forced to rely entirely upon private schools for instruction and such stray bits of information as may be gleaned here and there. These private

schools are usually commercial colleges, a few of which offer civil-service courses as subsidiary branches of the main establishment.

Are commercial colleges helpful to an applicant? If one find himself deficient in any of the basic or "grade" subjects, a course in a first-class commercial school will be of inestimable value. No matter how competent one may be to instruct himself, a school has the advantage of offering definite, prescribed instruction and teachers whose duty it is to bring the student creditably through his course. The particular advantage of a school course is to have some one say that this or that must be done.

The majority of schools offering civil-service courses are honestly and intelligently conducted and do all that they claim. In selecting a commercial school, it is best to patronize home industries. If the business colleges of the candidate's home town do not offer civil-service courses, recourse may be had to a reliable correspondence school, a number of which offer excellent short courses in the grade subjects and branches leading to clerical positions. If unknown, always investigate a correspondence school by writing to a prominent citizen, a bank, or the superintendent of public schools in the city where the institution is situated. This is advisable on account of various swindling games operated under the name of "correspondence schools." It is generally safe to set down as a fraud any establishment offering

something for nothing. A moment's thought should convince any one that it is not sound business to offer something for nothing; and when an institution advertises that "We don't want your money," it is well to think twice before risking any chances with it.

Some schools make a specialty of preparing candidates for civil-service examinations, charging therefor a small tuition fee with the understanding that the student is to pay somewhat more than the usual charge for a scholarship after he has secured a Government position. These schools usually treat their patrons fairly and justly, as it is to their interest to do so, every successful student being an advertisement.

There are several reliable "quizzes" and "coaches" in the large Eastern cities making a specialty of preparations for medical and technical positions. Personal attendance is required at these establishments. The usual charge is one hundred dollars for a complete course, payable in advance. The instruction is well worth the money, inasmuch as men who have seen long Federal service are usually connected with the enterprises. As in the case of the unknown commercial or correspondence school, it is well to make inquiry concerning their responsibility.

While advisable, it is not always necessary to attend a commercial school when preparing for a civil-service examination, providing the applicant has the industry and persistence to hold himself

to regular study. However, man ordinarily requires a teacher in most things, and preparation for civil-service examination certainly comes within the scope of this rule. The strongest argument in favor of the commercial college is the fact that there are to-day many hundreds of efficient Federal employés who owe their appointment to preparation made at such schools.

In this connection it is proper to say that the Government does not have association with any school for training applicants for civil-service positions. Any school advertising such an arrangement is a fraud. Not only does the Government refrain from preparing applicants, but persons are prohibited from performing work in Government offices with the object of fitting themselves for examination.

Coaching Applicants.—Prior to October 13, 1905, many office-holders did a flourishing and, in some cases, a lucrative business in coaching applicants for positions. Owing to their familiarity with requirements and the general trend of questions, it was easy for civil-service employés to train applicants for examination. A few weeks' instruction from an experienced and bright office-holder would be sufficient to enable an applicant to pass an examination. As may be supposed, this practice grew to such proportions as to become not only a nuisance but a pronounced discredit to the Government, inasmuch as it

afforded undue advantage to those who were so fortunate as to have a friend at court, but lacked the quality of supplying the general knowledge that a successful applicant should possess. Then again it did not look well, to say the least, for Federal office-holders to peddle commercially or give to their friends the superficial information that might result in passing marks being earned. It is not necessary to go deep into the ethics of the practice. Suffice it to say that the conditions assumed such an unfavorable aspect that the President brought it to an end. Instruction of applicants by Government officers or employés is now an offence punishable by summary dismissal from the public service.

General Information.—There is a growing demand on the part of appointing officers for eligibles possessing a fund of general information in addition to scholastic attainments. It is maintained by those in position to know, that an applicant who is well informed upon general events is better suited for Government work than one who secures a high rating on educational subjects only. It is an indication that the applicant not only keeps abreast of the times, but that he is mentally inquisitive and is something more than a machine. Owing to this demand, the Civil Service Commission often examines in "General Information." It is therefore advisable for applicants, particularly those ambitious to secure the best posts, to inform

themselves upon general events before presenting themselves for examination.

Preparation in this subject is somewhat uncertain, owing to its broad scope. In a general way it may be said that the questions asked are ones which any well-informed citizen should have no difficulty in answering; note the word *well.* They usually cover current events, the organization of the United States Government, the names of the more important officials, conspicuous events and persons of literature and history, geography, and a wide variety of common-sense information.

In conclusion, candidates for Government office are reminded that cramming does not educate; in many ways it is an evil. One may memorize and pack his head full of all kinds of disorganized facts which are entirely useless. The examinations laid down by the Civil Service Commission are practical, and in preparing for them one must be guided, above all, by plenty of good sense.

CHAPTER VI

EXAMINATION

SINCE the establishment of the merit system in 1883, about 1,100,000 persons have been examined for all branches of the classified service. Nearly 800,000, or 72 per cent. of these passed. The number of persons examined increased from 3500 in the first year of the merit system to over 125,000 annually—the average for the last five years.

The examinations conducted by the Civil Service Commission are held in all the States and Territories with the single exception of Alaska. An attempt is made to group the principal kinds of examinations and hold sittings for them twice a year, known as the "spring" and "autumn" examinations. Owing to the wide range of subjects, it is not feasible to group all examinations in this manner, and the others are held at the principal large cities according to the importance of the examinations. Sometimes, when the demand for eligibles is light, one of the spring or autumn examinations may be omitted, a condition that is particularly applicable to clerical positions.

MAKING APPLICATION.—A quite general idea is prevalent that it is necessary to secure information concerning examinations through third parties, usually politicians. This is not at all the case; the practice merely wastes time and serves no good end. The proper way to secure information concerning any particular examination is to apply direct to the Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C. If the examination be not conducted from the Commission's headquarters, the applicant's letter will be referred to the proper district and he will receive a prompt answer to his inquiries. In addressing inquiries to the Commission, the shorter the communication the better; the Commission receives thousands upon thousands of letters a year, and an extra minute or two per letter spent in reading them means, in the aggregate, many days of hard work.

In filling out the application forms brevity is by no means the soul of wit, but many times results in loss of appointment. Every question should be carefully *answered* and this does not mean the insertion of various check marks such as ✓ × ~ in the spaces provided for answers. Every question should be answered *fully*. It is to be remembered that appointing officers want to know something about the persons whom they nominate to be their official associates and the only way they can learn anything is from the papers themselves. An applicant may attain a high rating upon his examination and yet fall short

of appointment because his application looks suspicious or does not say something that should have been said.

In cases where a personal history is called for it should be given completely, for the answers will bring out certain accomplishments in the way of education or experience not hinted at in the examination itself and serve to influence the appointing officer in making his selection. "Reserved knowledge is reserved strength," but if the appointing officer knows nothing about this reserved knowledge he is not likely to be impressed with it. Modesty is all right in its place, but there is danger of carrying that virtue to excess when it comes to a civil-service examination. An applicant need not be afraid of saying too much about himself and his accomplishments, provided he is ready to prove his mettle.

Scholastic qualifications alone do not adequately suit the requirements in a large number of positions; but, on the lottery principle that prizes are few, appointing officers content themselves with a glance at the ratings and a careful perusal of the personal history and collateral facts that candidates put in their applications. This serves to emphasize the necessity of giving a full personal history when making application.

It is perhaps almost needless to say that a false statement is cause for cancelling the application, and any fraud is likely to result in considerable trouble for the unsuspecting candidate. Frauds

in connection with examinations are offences against the United States, and it is the policy of our Government to bring offenders to justice regardless of time or money. If, through oversight or error, a misstatement be made, it can be rectified by laying the matter before the Commission.

PERSONS BARRED FROM EXAMINATION.—The following causes bar applicants from examination:

1. Allegiance to a foreign government.
2. Physical or mental incapacity.
3. The excessive use of intoxicants.
4. Enlistment in the army or navy unless permission for taking the examination has been secured from the Secretary of War or the Secretary of the Navy.
5. Nonconformity with age requirements.
6. Eligibility for appointment to the position covered by the examination.
7. Dismissal from the public service for delinquency within a year preceding application.
8. Failure to receive absolute appointment. In this case a candidate's application will be accepted after one year from the expiration of the probational period.
9. Crime or disgraceful conduct.

Applications that are disapproved are retained in the Commission's files for further reference.

RECOMMENDATIONS.—In making application for civil-service examination, no recommendation other than those called for in the printed form

will be accepted. Here is another point where many go astray. The popular idea that political or other "influence" will help a candidate is all wrong. There are times and occasions, spoken of elsewhere in this book, when "influence" does help one along the road to success, but the civil-service examination is not one of them. When it comes to an examination, every one must stand on his merits. It is useless for the applicant to file more recommendations than called for, as they will receive no consideration, no matter by whom given or how excellent they may be.

CITIZENSHIP.—Some years ago a large number of aliens held positions in our civil service, owing to lax methods of appointment. This condition was seized upon by the newspapers who created an adverse public sentiment upon the subject, and the result was a house-cleaning in the Federal departments. The foreign-born employés were invited to present citizenship papers; upon failure to do so dismissal followed.

It is easy to see that under such a system any or all nations could secure an unlimited amount of information concerning the workings and policies of our Government simply by delegating agents to accept positions in our service. This practice would not be especially harmful in times of peace; unfortunately, nations cannot live together more peaceably than can individuals, and the information gathered in peace could be used against us in war. So the United States now makes

an almost universal requirement of citizenship as a condition for appointment.

Proof of American citizenship must be submitted by the foreign-born applicant. A declaration of intention to take out citizenship papers is not naturalization and will not be accepted as such. In the event the naturalization papers are lost, certified copies must be submitted with the application.

FEES.—At present the Government charges no fee in connection with examination for civil positions. The Commission has repeatedly suggested that an examination fee be charged. It is maintained that a small fee, say one dollar for an examination, would reduce the number of applicants. Of the thousands examined yearly many are so hopelessly ill prepared that the time consumed in examining them is wasted. It is certain that a small fee would discourage inadequately prepared applicants. As the system is operated at present any one, no matter how inefficient, may apply for and take any examination he desires. The results of examinations show that many persons present themselves with no hope of passing, but having as their sole object that of ascertaining what the examination is like, then presenting themselves later for the purpose of obtaining passing marks. It is evident that such persons would not care to pay even a small fee for the privilege of examination. A reduction in the number of persons examined would be a corre-

sponding saving to the Government. Some effort has been made to secure legislation providing for examination fees, but the Congress has refused to sanction the assessment.

Examination of Persons in Government Service.—A person holding a classified position may be examined and appointed to a position other than the kind occupied at the time of examination. Thus, a mechanic could be examined for a clerkship, a clerk could be examined for a position as translator, a scientist could compete for a place as chief of division, and so on. So long as the position covered by the examination is of a kind different from that held by the employé, there is no objection to his competing. In fact, the Government employé will, four times out of five, be named to fill the place in preference to other candidates, conditions being equal. Nominating officers naturally prefer applicants experienced in Government methods, and thus save themselves the trouble of training their assistants.

Strange as it may seem, a large proportion of office-holders do not know that they have a right to be examined for other positions, and they plod along year after year striving to reach the head of their class. Many who find things scarcely up to their hopes would be able, without special preparation, to pass examinations and secure appointments to more desirable posts. This goes to show that public employés do not know enough

about the Government; but, as the saying goes, "we live and learn."

EXAMINATIONS FOR INSULAR POSITIONS.—By the word "insular" is meant island possessions outside the actual boundaries of the United States. The requirements for examinations covering positions in these services are constantly changing, and the only way to keep in touch is to write the Civil Service Commission for information. The Commission, in a general way, works in close harmony with the various island boards, aiding and assisting them in every way possible.

When conditions are equal, natives are appointed in preference to candidates from "the States," as it is the policy of this Government to encourage the residents of newly acquired territory in self-government. When it becomes necessary, in the establishment or extension of American rule, to make civil appointments from this country, the requirements are somewhat minimized in view of the inconveniences of climate, language, local customs, and separation from home ties that are to be encountered in accepting appointment. As conditions change, the residents of the "possessions" or colonies acquire the American habit of office-seeking, the examination standards are raised, and in many cases citizens from the continent are excluded from competition.

The Philippine and Porto Rican civil services are gradually becoming closed to American residents, and there is little doubt that the future

will see quite all the minor posts filled by natives. Even now the appointments from the States are limited to technical or administrative posts.

Civil-service conditions in Panama are somewhat confused. An effort was made to place the whole work upon a competitive basis, but owing to the conditions of work and compensation it became difficult to secure American eligibles. Therefore, all positions except a few of a clerical, scientific, and executive nature were removed from the classified service. The requirements for admission to competitive positions are the same as for the States, with entrance salaries from 25 to 75 per cent. higher.

SPECIAL EXAMINATIONS.—The regularly scheduled examinations do not by any means cover the varied kinds of positions which the Civil Service Commission is called upon to fill. The extension of the departments, the organization of new bureaus, and the creation of vacancies require special examinations; this has particular significance in the case of technical and scientific places. In such cases the special examinations are advertised as widely as possible.

The Commission has no means of anticipating either the kind of examination or the subjects covered, and for this reason it is impossible to announce them in the Manual. Persons having unusual qualifications and desiring to take a special examination should request the Civil Service Commission to place their names on file against the

time when a call is made for candidates. By doing so they will be notified when the examinations are held and will be given the privilege of competing. It is a mere gamble as to how soon this will be; it may be within a day and it may be deferred several years, or possibly never.

Special examinations are often confined to questions of education and experience, which the competitors must prove by affidavit and the submission of publications of which they are authors, or other proper evidence.

THE "CUT-AND-DRIED" EXAMINATION.—It is often alleged that the Government makes some examinations so difficult that only few persons have any hope whatever of passing, and that these examinations are designed to fit certain experts. This is true, yet the bare statement is misleading.

It is sometimes evident that certain widely known experts are peculiarly qualified to fill high positions in the civil service, and it becomes desirable for the Government to secure their services. When this is the case, it is obvious that the proper way to secure them is by arranging an examination fitted to the exigencies of the service. In preparing the examination, the plan followed is to make the tests so rigid that the great bulk of possible applicants are prevented from taking the examination. It is useless and time wasted to put out ordinary examinations to fill positions requiring extraordinary qualifications. Having prescribed the examination, the matter of rating

and appointing becomes one of form, and the Government is the gainer.

For example: Assuming that a chemical expert qualified in certain lines of research work is needed to direct some investigations. The Civil Service Commission will consult with the head of the bureau in which the vacancy exists as to the requirements of the position. Having canvassed the situation and decided that a certain standard should be set, an examination is prepared accordingly. Chemists in all parts of the country may take the examination and will receive a just rating. Yet it is manifest that if a particular expert take the examination other candidates cannot hope to attain his rating owing to their lack of his qualifications. His eligibility and appointment naturally follow. However, if the expert decline appointment when tendered, it will go to the next highest eligible.

This method of securing eligibles is entirely within the spirit and the letter of the statute. It shuts out no one with the required attainments, and if everybody but two or three persons lack those attainments that is not the Government's fault. The Government wants efficiency, which is the soul of the merit system.

Merely scholastic attainments should not be the only considerations in making appointment to Federal positions, especially to the higher places. Such qualifications as tact, judgment, and executive ability, as well as the more personal

one of congeniality, should be considered. As yet no method has been devised by which these qualifications can be graded, and it is only in the few cases of high places, mostly scientific and technical posts, that they are considered at all.

If it were possible for the examiners to know all the applicants personally or by reputation and rate them on qualifications other than experience and academic learning, we would have an ideal system. As ideals are seldom reached, it is a hopeless hope to anticipate any such excellence; therefore, the next best thing is utilized—the so-called "cut-and-dried" examination. There is little doubt that time will develop this method to an extent that the higher offices will be filled quite wholly on some such plan. A smoothly working system of this kind would obviate the necessity of suspending the rules in order to secure the services of a particularly capable expert. It would also instil into the departments of the Government, in a way now unattainable, more of the elements in men's being that make for success.

EXPERIENCE AS AN ASSET.—In the examinations now conducted for filling vacancies in the higher offices, experience is given equal rank with education. Indeed, this valuable asset not infrequently ranks all other qualifications.

Experience is the master that brings out a man's best; it teaches him how to do his chosen work in the best way and how to avoid former

errors. It follows that the Government will be the gainer in securing experienced servants. In stating his experience, the applicant should be careful to confine himself to facts. It is easy to stretch a point without violating conscience when a good appointment is in prospect, as it is man's nature to think that he can do just a little more than he has ever done. In dealing with the Government he must prove his words by deeds.

There is a tendency to give more credit to experience than has been done in the past. This does not mean that the future will see a diminishing of scholastic requirements. On the contrary, scholastic requirements will be raised; but the demands for experience will be more than correspondingly raised. This statement has reference not only to the civil-service appointments, but to the whole Federal organization—legislative, executive, and judicial. In every branch and every arm of the Government, the demand for experience is growing. This is in line with the trend of the times. We are no longer pioneers in a new land. The land is ours and it takes men of stamina and capability to guide, and men of experience in their respective spheres to carry out the details of those who lead.

So pronounced is the drift toward experience that competitors, in examinations where experience counts twenty-five per cent. or more of the examination, are marked in this qualification before any rating is given in other subjects. If

they fall below seventy in training and experience they are not even marked in the other subjects.

OPTIONALS.—Experience and the demands of appointing officers have lately developed a new plan that the Commission is putting into increased practice, and the signs point to a more extensive use of the scheme. This is the holding of a general examination with a thesis on some chosen subject as the basis, then submitting a long list of optional subjects, several of which the competitor is permitted to take. Thus, the Commission might announce an examination to fill high-grade clerical and minor executive positions, stating that the first-grade subjects plus a thesis shall constitute the general examination, but that, to attain eligibility, the candidate must pass in one or more of twenty or thirty optional subjects which the Commission names. In this manner a large number of eligibles with a wide variety of specialties can be secured, and nominating officers may then have a choice list from which to make selections. These optionals cover a broad field, such as chemistry, civil engineering, bookeeping, law, stenography and typewriting, medicine, mathematics, forestry, editing and proof-reading, library science, educational methods, modern languages, and other suitable subjects.

It is advisable for those having Government service in view to keep their addresses on file with the Civil Service Commission for circulars announcing special and optional examinations.

These examinations are held only at irregular intervals. They are not a regular thing; but the experiment has been tried with such success that indications point to a good future for the plan.

In the Examination Room.—A competitor should get himself into as near perfect physical condition as possible before appearing for examination. The body should not be tired nor the mind clouded. One cannot hope to do his best with a befogged brain and trembling fingers, and it is necessary to bring all the faculties into play to compete successfully with the other contestants.

There are two bad mistakes that competitors sometimes discover after they have presented themselves for examination. The one is lack of preparation; the other, haste in disposing of the examination. The necessity for thorough preparation has already been considered. Haste and carelessness often prove Waterloos for the well prepared. There seems to be an inherent tendency in the average competitor to hurry through the examination. When the first contestant finishes his papers and leaves the examination room, it is a signal for the other competitors to fall into a race to be the next out. This is a dangerous and often fatal mistake. Ample time is given for answering all questions and, unless otherwise specifically stated, time does not enter into the rating of the examination papers. It is far better to take the full limit of time in answer-

ing questions and do it right than to take half the time and lose points by careless errors.

"Stage fright" is also to be avoided, something more easily advised than observed. Many competitors are unable to give an intelligent answer to the simplest question when taking a Government examination, a condition due entirely to excitement. This unfortunate condition is no respecter of persons, as it is as likely to attack the well prepared as the unprepared.

If problems of apparently impossible solution be encountered, the competitor should not spend time in worrying over them and so unfit himself for further tests. Instead, let him pass to the next question and, after finishing the others, go back and give his attention to the stubborn problem until he has exhausted the time allotted to that particular subject. Knotty questions are sometimes easily answered after the mind has been at work successfully solving others. It is certain that the mind will not work intelligently when worries and confusion are crowded into it.

Competitors are given numbers and are known throughout the examination by number. At the close of the examination, what is known as a "personal question sheet" is filled out. This sheet contains the competitor's name, his number, and a few supplemental items of personal history. This sheet is placed in an envelope, sealed by the contestant, and handed to the examiners. When the last competitor has turned in his paper, the

examiners seal the records and forward them to headquarters for rating.

RATING EXAMINATION PAPERS.—When a series of examination papers is received at the Civil Service Commission, the papers are parcelled out by subjects and given to a number of different persons for correction. Thus, papers on arithmetic would go to a mathematician, chemistry to a chemist, etc. As soon as a subject is marked, the papers pertaining to it are turned over to another person for independent marking, and in like manner passed on to a third person.

The examiners are guided by an intricate set of rules and carefully, closely mark every paper, with no clue to the identity of the competitor. When all papers have been marked, they are assembled by number, the envelopes containing the personal questions are opened, and, for the first time, the competitors' names are revealed. The markings are now tabulated according to rank and the competitors notified of their ratings. The papers of one examination are all marked at the same time and none made special. It will be seen from this system that collusion or partiality in rating is impossible.

It must not be understood that the papers of all examinations are rated by persons connected with the Civil Service Commission. In the case of experts and specially qualified candidates, the examination papers are turned over to a board composed of experts proficient in the subjects

covered by the examination. The same rules for marking apply here as in the case of the Civil Service Corps, inasmuch as the boards act under the direction of the Commission. This practice is not only a considerable aid to the Commission's examining division, but better serves the purpose, as it takes an expert to judge an expert.

Appeals from ratings are rare. It is practically useless to spend time in writing the Commission upon such subjects, for the chances of securing higher marks are exceedingly remote. If anything, the ratings will be lowered owing to the fact that the reviewers will give closer attention to the minutest details of an appellant's papers. Exception is sometimes taken to the system of giving credit for experience and education; but in such instances it is quite certain that the competitor had an exaggerated notion of his experience or misinterpreted the questions. The Civil Service Commission is at all times ready to investigate any complaint from any source concerning any branch of its work.

RE-EXAMINATION.—A person failing in an examination may re-enter the next examination by filing a new application, but one who passes will not be permitted to compete in the same kind of examination within a year. Re-examination as a result of injustice is permitted, in the words of the Commission, "only in very exceptional cases." Physical or mental condition at the time of examination is not sufficient cause. Before grant-

ing a re-examination, the Commission must be convinced that peculiar circumstances existed, the conditions varying in individual cases.

DISPOSITION OF PAPERS.—All papers in connection with the examination of candidates are held as confidential by the Civil Service Commission and are not open to inspection by the public. Many of the statements made in the application and personal-question forms are extremely personal in their nature, and it would be manifestly unjust to permit their inspection by any citizen of inquisitive mind, or whose interests might be enhanced by knowledge of his neighbor's personal history. The Government closely guards these papers.

The papers of unsuccessful applicants are destroyed at the end of five years, but those securing appointment are held indefinitely in the Commission's files, as it is the Government's policy to retain a complete history of all its office-holders.

CHAPTER VII

APPOINTMENT

THE kinds of positions to which appointments are made under the merit system vary from year to year. Lately about forty per cent. of appointments have been given to mechanics, forty-five per cent. to persons in clerical and sub-clerical lines, about twelve per cent. to skilled laborers, while only three per cent. have gone to professional, scientific, and technical candidates. These figures are highly elastic, depending upon the extent of departmental operations. For example, should the Congress pass a bill authorizing the United States Government to build all its battleships and manufacture its military stores, the percentage of appointments to mechanical trades would go up with a bound to seventy or eighty per cent. Conversely, should laws be enacted providing that all work now done at navy yards be performed by contract, appointments to mechanical positions would drop to almost nil. So appointments made one year are no index for the next. The number and kind depend upon national conditions.

Since the organization of the civil-service system, nearly 300,000 appointments from examination registers have been made, equal to thirty-six per cent. of those that passed. This includes all branches of the classified service, but not those covered into the service by Executive Order without examination. The appointments to the classified service in the first six months of the operation of the law totalled but 489; for the last five years they have numbered about 40,000 annually.

ELIGIBILITY.—Candidates are eligible for appointment for one year from the time their names are entered upon the register. In the event they have passed examinations for several different kinds of positions, appointment to any one of the positions cancels eligibility for all others of equal or lower grade; places of higher grade are not affected. The period of eligibility may be extended by the Civil Service Commission when it is deemed inadvisable to hold new examinations within a year. Extension of eligibility will not be granted any person to the exclusion of others.

CERTIFICATION.—By the term "certification" is meant the procedure adopted by the Civil Service Commission in notifying appointment officers that certain candidates are eligible. The Commission merely certifies that Mr. So-and-So is eligible. The actual appointment is not made by the Civil Service Commission, but by the

Secretary of the Department in which the eligible is to be employed. Note the difference between the terms "certify" and "appoint."

The Civil Service Commission has no means of knowing when or where vacancies exist except as learned from the requisitions made upon it for eligibles. It is the Commission's province to supply eligibles, not to hunt places for eligibles. The filling of positions lies entirely within the province of the office or department in which the vacancies occur; the department may or may not fill the vacancies, as circumstances demand. The Civil Service Commission is not concerned with that responsibility.

In the event a vacancy occurs, say, in the clerical force of a department, requisition is made by the department upon the Civil Service Commission for a clerk having the necessary qualifications. The Commission selects from the clerk register three names of the sex called for, choosing candidates at the head of the list of eligibles and who are resident in States entitled to appointments under the apportionment. The papers of these three eligibles are forwarded to the department with a transcript of their ratings. The selection of one of the three eligibles rests with the department; any one of the three may be selected, or "nominated," as it is called. The other two names are sent back to the Commission for restoration to the register. Having selected an eligible, the departmental or "nominating" officer

informs the candidate of his selection, naming the salary attached to the place.

This proceeding is followed, in like or modified form, in all places under the merit system. If only two names are on the register of eligibles, as sometimes is the case, these two names are certified by the Commission; one is nominated and the other sent back for restoration to the register. Only one thing guides the Commission in making certifications, and that is rating. The time of taking an examination is not considered. For instance, a competitor taking an examination in October and making an average of eighty-four will be certified before one having taken the same examination in the preceding March but with a lower rating. It will thus be seen that higher grades brighten the prospects of early certification.

An eligible cannot be certified more than three times to the same department, but he may be certified to other departments or independent offices. A misapprehension in this respect is very general, as it is widely supposed that a total of but three certifications can be made, whereas the number may be many more. Certifications may also be made to fill positions lower than that covered by the examination, and this is by no means an uncommon method of securing especially well qualified appointees in the lower positions.

In the event a nominating officer fails to make

selection from the three names certified, he will have to give good reasons therefor to the Commission, and this is not easily done. The Commission is willing to waive certain technicalities for the public good, but is particularly stubborn in cases that savor of discrimination or unfairness. Therefore, officers declining to make nominations from the three candidates certified may expect to be asked troublesome questions.

PROSPECT OF APPOINTMENT.—There is no way of determining with any degree of accuracy the probability of appointment after successful examination. Appointment depends upon vacancy, and where no vacancy exists appointment cannot be made. In a general way, the competitors obtaining high ratings have the best prospects of appointment, providing the States of which they are citizens have not reached their full quota of appointments under the apportionment; States that have had their full share of appointments are not considered. This applies to such positions as are apportioned. It can readily be understood why a State having received its quota of appointments to positions in the Federal service at Washington should be passed over in favor of one to which appointments are due.

The registers are usually well supplied with eligibles of average qualifications, and the prospects of appointment of such persons are necessarily limited. Persons having special qualifications have much better chances. One qualified to fill a

clerical position, for example, would have his chances multiplied if he had a working knowledge of stenography, or of drafting, bookkeeping, or other special accomplishment, though he could not pass in that additional subject. This is on the principle that executive officers are willing to waive many of the requirements demanded of applicants in the general examinations and to accept other qualifications in their place.

It does not take a shrewd person to see why the head of an engineering or chart-making office will prefer a mediocre clerk having some knowledge of drafting to an expert general clerk having no such knowledge. The same thing applies to other special qualifications, instances of which are continually arising in Federal offices. Appointing offices demand specialties, and the eligible possessing a specialty and having made that fact plain in his application has much better prospects of securing appointment than his less fortunate competitor who secured better ratings in the examination but who possesses no specialty.

The entrance salary also has considerable to do with securing appointment. Well qualified eligibles willing to accept small entrance salaries have a distinct advantage in the matter of appointment over those demanding more for their services, a condition that obtains in the Government with quite the same force as in private business. One of the questions asked in the personal-question sheet at the close of the exam-

ination is, What is the minimum entrance salary you will be willing to accept? Answer to this question blights or brightens the prospect of appointment. Candidates placing their minimum higher than the average entrance salaries attached to the coveted positions lessen their chances in proportion to the size of their minimum.

The filling of Government positions is dependent upon the law of supply and demand, as in commercial life. The greater the demand for eligibles, the better are the chances of appointment. Considerable legislation is enacted at each session of the Congress whereby more positions are created. The establishment of the rural free delivery is a good example of this; it meant the creation of many thousands of positions. The reclamation service, under which come the irrigation enterprises now being prosecuted, opened the way for a small army of engineers, scientists, clerks, mechanics, and laborers. The establishment of the Department of Commerce and Labor, with a consequent creation of several new bureaus, required a large number of employés of all grades and classes. The pure food and drug legislation provided many new places, some of them paying handsomely.

During eras of commercial prosperity, the Government experiences a great deal of difficulty in filling vacancies, especially those involving business qualifications, such as stenography and typewriting, bookkeeping, business methods, engineering, drafting, and kindred subjects. In

hard times, when many thousands of this kind of employés are out of work, the registers of eligibles become glutted. It therefore follows that eligibles possessing such qualifications have much brighter prospects of appointment in prosperous times than when business is depressed.

Experience is another factor that influences appointment. Nominating officers always prefer a man with experience to one with theory only. Persons who can show experience and who possess good habits, even temper, and sound judgment have better prospects of securing appointment than those lacking these valuable qualifications.

Age of Appointees.—Age is always an interesting topic, especially when applied to successful persons. Everybody is interested in the man who succeeds; after learning of his good fortune, there is a wish to know the age at which his success was attained.

Whether or not there is a relationship between age and success is a mooted question, both sides having numerous arguments with plenty of exceptions just to prove the point. The question of age agitated the framers of the civil-service regulations to the same extent that it does men in executive capacities everywhere. As the spirit of the law is to secure the best material available, age limits naturally come in for a considerable share of attention. Various plans for limiting the ages of applicants have been tried and found wanting. The limitation of age requirements

has been found to exclude so many desirable competitors that an extension was deemed wise; and yet the extension of the period to generous bounds resulted in the acquisition of poor material out of all proportion to the number of capable employés secured. So the age question is far from being settled.

After long experience and many trials it has been found that the period between twenty-one and forty-five years is productive of the best results in appointees to civil-service positions. The restriction of ages to these limits is by no means an absolute practice; considerable flexibility is observed, so much so indeed that many of the most desirable assignments provide no age requirements at all for their filling.

The entrance ages of appointees vary widely according to the nature of the work. Masons, blacksmiths, farmers in the Indian service, and similar trades occupations average well up to fifty years, while messenger boys and apprentices average slightly over sixteen. The average age of all appointees to civil-service positions is twenty-eight years, which is somewhat under the average in commercial life. This low average is brought about by the large number of railway mail clerks and stenographers and typewriters appointed whose mean age at appointment is about twenty-four years. Trades positions on the Isthmus of Panama, where the conditions of climate and environment require only the best physical

type, show an average at appointment of nearly thirty-three years. The age of appointees doing the same work in "the States" runs many years higher. Appointees to clerical posts average thirty years, bookkeepers twenty-seven years. Skilled mechanics, compositors, and technical appointees enter the public service at thirty-five to forty years of age. The simpler the trade or profession, the lower is the average age at appointment; likewise the more experience necessary in becoming proficient in a chosen occupation, the higher the average entrance age.

The Civil Service Commission states that "appointing officers, as a rule, select the younger eligibles certified, when they are found to possess the necessary qualifications." While this is undoubtedly the practice, especially proficient eligibles of well advanced years need fear no discrimination on account of age in the event they possess the "necessary qualifications," which, in the case of older persons, means "additional" qualifications. If the applicant of advanced years has no special attainments his hopes are practically gone.

It may seem hard that of two eligibles of like capacity the younger is almost invariably chosen; but it will be borne in mind that the younger has proved himself the equal of his elder and that when he reaches the latter's age he will be a much more valuable man. If a man has not fitted himself with one or more special qualifications by

the time he has reached middle life it is his own fault and he must bear the consequences of his folly. He should not expect preference or favors because of his age when competing with younger men; his years should have brought him specialization or exceptional versatility and made him superior to his younger competitors.

The acquisition of an education, through untoward circumstances, sometimes comes comparatively late in life; but it is an inflexible rule that men of this stamp are always winners in whatever field they work. It is not necessary for them to give the question of age a second thought. Business and professional failures sometimes take away men's hope and they turn to the Government for a livelihood. These men are of more advanced age than the average. Again, there are the prodigies—the boys of sixteen or eighteen who know as much and know it as well as men of thirty years; they enter the service at tender years, but the Government seldom retains them long, as the voice of the outer world is too loud and the financial rewards too promising to be ignored.

The sons of Government employés often enter the Federal service, and when they do it is early in life. Many young men and women seek public service at Washington for the purpose of educating themselves; such persons are appointed at eighteen to twenty-two years. There is a large number of men from thirty to forty years old who have

tried their fortunes in various kinds of work and turn to the Federal service as a field offering pleasant and profitable work for their modest ambitions.

Whatever may be said of age, merit is the thing that counts always and invariably. Men of all ages enter the service of the national Government, but do so on merit; and when a man has ability and knows he has it, he need not worry about his age.

PREFERENCE IN APPOINTMENT.— Under section 1754 of the Revised Statutes, persons honorably discharged from the army or navy on account of disability incurred in line of duty are entitled to certain preferences in appointment. A candidate entitled to preference is required to attain an average of but sixty-five in examinations instead of seventy, the usual passing grade; he is exempt from age conditions; if eligible, his name is placed at the head of the register of eligibles and certified first; and he is not subject to the rules of apportionment. These advantages do not obtain in the case of promotions and examinations for the Philippine service.

The preferences shown honorably discharged soldiers and sailors are of some value in securing Federal appointment, a consideration that is eminently right and just. However, nominating officers are not compelled to select the person who stands at the head of the register of eligibles, but may select any one of the three names certified

by the Civil Service Commission, and soldiers and sailors falling below a fair percentage are passed over in favor of eligibles with higher ratings more often than they are chosen.

The preference rights, it will be noted, accrue only to those discharged on account of disability incurred in line of duty and do not extend to other honorably discharged men no matter how long or how well they may have served in the army or the navy. Moreover, those who are preferred must be qualified to perform the duties of their office. The Government does not undertake to offer appointment to incompetents, whether disabled in line of duty or not. So, all in all, the discharged soldier and sailor do not have the advantage popularly supposed. Service in the fighting branch is not regarded by many as fitting one for the sedentary office positions of the civil service. It is, therefore, advisable for the applicant holding an honorable discharge from the army or navy not to depend too much upon his military record to secure him appointment; he will certainly be called upon to show his capacity in the same manner as his civilian competitor. While it is true that he often secures a place by reason of his patriotic service, it must be understood that here again merit counts.

Temporary Appointment.—The positions in the executive civil service are by no means all permanent, notwithstanding a prevalent notion that appointment is equivalent to life tenure.

As in commercial life, positions in the Government service are many times temporary, either distinctly so or pending their permanent filling; in either event the appointee may expect to be dropped from the roll at the expiration of his appointment unless new conditions arise whereby he is retained.

Successful competitors, especially those seeking clerical positions, generally receive a blank form from the Commission relating to the acceptance of temporary appointment. When these forms are executed in the affirmative, tender of temporary appointment is often made.

Temporary appointment is not, as a rule, made to persons at a distance, as it is inexpedient to invite successful applicants to incur the expense and inconvenience of long journeys for a temporary assignment. When tenders of temporary appointment are made to persons residing at a long distance from the place of duty, ultimate permanent appointment may be anticipated; this, however, must not be taken as absolute. Cases have come up wherein persons living 1500 miles distant were taken to Washington on appointment which proved only temporary, and at the expiration of a short assignment they were dismissed without recourse. That this is a hardship is unquestionable; but it is the gambler's chance.

Persons equipped with a specialty encounter fewer risks in accepting temporary appointment than those with ordinary qualifications. Thus,

a good stenographer, bookkeeper, draftsman, or technical man would, under ordinary conditions, have excellent prospects of a temporary appointment developing into a permanent one, inasmuch as the man with a useful specialty is always in demand by the Government, and if a permanent berth cannot be found for him in one bureau a place is waiting elsewhere.

Temporary appointment is sometimes accepted by the adventurous who, casting fortune with fate, acts on the principle that "a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush" and "act to-day, to-morrow may never come." This kind of person usually gets along wherever he is, and not infrequently his boldness in taking chances wins for him what he otherwise never could gain. "Risk hath its gains" is a saying as applicable to Government appointment as to any other calling; for it is an undeniable fact that the man who is afraid to risk anything rarely mounts higher than the ground, and even there he may stumble over his own feet.

Taking it all in all, the average person—and by far the majority of us are average—should look well to his steps before accepting temporary appointment if living at a distance from the seat of employment. This is especially important for the appointee who is the head of the family or has persons depending upon him for support. In such cases the sure road is the safest to travel.

In this connection it is well to add that tempor-

ary appointment should not be confused with appointment on probation. Probation means permanency providing the candidate lives up to his credentials, and there is no reason why one qualified to pass an examination should not do this, as is confirmed by the very few probational appointments that are not made permanent. Temporary appointment, on the other hand, is never made on probation, as the nature and object of probation is the securing of permanent service to the Government.

Temporary appointment does not interfere with permanent appointment should the candidate's name stand high on the register of eligibles. This is an advantage to unemployed eligibles living reasonably near the place of duty, as it allows them to accept a position under the Government without jeopardizing their interests in permanency.

PROBATION.—When candidates securing appointment in the civil service receive official notification of their selection they are required to report for duty at once. They pay their own expenses to the place of assignment and their salary begins from the date of the oath of office. The oath of office is administered to all appointees, and may be taken before any person authorized to administer oaths, whether Federal officer or local notary public. The following is the form of oath:

"I, ———, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I

will support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I take this obligation freely, without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion; and that I will well and faithfully discharge the duties of the office on which I am about to enter: So help me God."

Immediately upon administration of the oath of office the candidate becomes an office-holder of the United States Government, his appointment usually reading "for a probational period of six months." To the uninitiated this proviso carries disappointment, for it looks like temporary appointment. This is not so; though it may prove temporary, depending upon the candidate himself. The probational period of six months is the last test of an applicant's fitness for holding office. It sometimes, though rarely, happens that one may pass high in the written examination and yet lack the cardinal qualifications required of Government office-holders, such as industry, good habits, and discretion. The appointment for six months on probation is designed to lay bare any undiscovered faults in the appointee; that is, he is put on trial for six months and, if found wanting, is dropped from the rolls at the expiration of that period. In the event he proves himself up to the average in intelligence, industry, and character his probational appointment becomes absolute at the end of six months.

Probational appointees are rarely dropped

at the end of six months for the reason that the average man is able to give a good account of himself in that time. Occasionally one is found who immediately rests upon his oars the moment he has taken the oath of office, mistakenly believing that the Government provides berths for those who pass the civil-service examinations rather than those who are able to do the work assigned them; his usefulness is gauged accordingly, and he is warned. If he be wise, he heeds the admonition; if not, he is dropped from the roll at the end of his six months' probation and his place filled by another eligible.

Probationers not infrequently observe that greater diligence and closer attention to duty are apparently required of them than of fellow employés. Others have the idea that they know more than any of their associates and can do better work than those at neighboring desks. Some even go so far as to criticise methods and persons about them. Such notions are the fruit of ignorance and inexperience, and lead to discord. Probationers should guard themselves against these faults and make every effort to adjust themselves to conditions. In nearly every case they will discover that their first impressions were erroneous and that the man at the next desk who seemed to have little to do is in reality one of the most valuable men in the office.

Having satisfactorily completed his six months' probation, absolute appointment follows and

the employé finds himself upon the permanent roll.

SERVICE AT WASHINGTON AND ELSEWHERE.—There are about thirty thousand employés in the departments at Washington, the number varying but slightly from year to year according to the exigencies of the times. The rest of the immense army of civil-service workers is scattered over the country and some are stationed abroad.

The demand for appointment to positions at Washington exceeds many times over the number of places available. It is not saying too much to state that every Government employé casts longing eyes toward the nation's seat of government, wishing that good fortune would take him there. This is natural, and a laudable desire. Scarcely one in ten, however, can hope to secure assignment to Washington. The first step toward effecting this lies in specifying such a desire in the "personal question sheet" supplied in the examination room; this may result in securing an assignment at headquarters, but it is no guarantee whatever and the competitor must take his chances. If an eligible possess some valuable specialty he will have little or no trouble in getting a Washington detail. Here again the specialty comes into play and further emphasizes the desirability of such an equipment.

The majority of appointments, in their nature, preclude the possibility of assignment to duty at Washington. These places are included in

the immigration, internal revenue, life-saving, post-office, and similar services; also navy yards and army posts. The probability of persons in those services securing Washington assignments are exceedingly remote.

Many candidates agree to accept positions in various parts of the country hoping to secure ultimate transfer to Washington. Expectations of this kind are the outcome of ignorance of conditions; for, as a matter of fact, there is more demand from those in Government service at large to secure transfer to Washington than there is in the case of original appointees. Orders emanating from the departments at Washington impress the officers and employés in local Government offices, and nothing is more reasonable than that they should wish to secure assignment to department headquarters. The acceptance of a place in a local office quite effectually shuts the doors of the Washington departments as does the submittal of commonplace accomplishments in the examination papers. The probability of securing a transfer is more than remote—it is infinitesimal.

It is advisable for persons desiring service at Washington to equip themselves with a specialty, pass an examination, and specify that appointment to Washington only will be considered.

There are a number of reasons that impel candidates to seek appointment to positions in the Washington departments. Chief among these

reasons is the lack of promotion opportunities in local offices. Offices with a small personnel offer fewer changes in staff than do the large departmental offices. In addition to this there is a feeling of segregation which, to say the least, is not conducive to ambition. The principal reason is a desire to be in closer touch with the national life, a condition that is met only in the capital.

DECLINATION OF APPOINTMENT.—An eligible declining appointment which meets the conditions as to salary and place of assignment indicated by him in his application will be dropped from the register and will receive no further tenders of appointment, unless he can give the Commission a *satisfactory reason* for declining. In the event conditions arise subsequent to examination making it inadvisable for him to accept appointment under the terms indicated in his examination, the candidate should at once notify the Commission and not wait until he has been tendered a position. Upon the receipt of such information the change of conditions will be given due consideration by the Commission.

It is not necessary to accept an appointment at a salary less than that indicated at the time of examination and such declination will not bar the eligible from further certification. When declining, attention should be invited to the terms specified at the time of examination. In all cases, full explanation should be made to the Civil Service Commission.

TRANSFER.—Persons appointed under the civil-service regulations may be transferred from one position to another in the same department, to positions in other departments, and to places in distant cities provided they have served three years in the department from which transfer is sought. Transfers, however, cannot be made from the unclassified service to the classified service, or from a lower to a higher grade, or in any case where the entrance examination is of a more advanced character than that taken by the persons to be transferred.

Examinations are sometimes required of applicants for transfers, but not in all cases; the Civil Service Commission decides upon the eligibility of an applicant. Tests of fitness are generally demanded by the office to which transfer is sought, for the primary object in filling positions by transfer is to secure persons particularly competent to do the work and to profit by the training received in other Government offices. These tests of fitness usually take the trend of actual work for a day or two in the office to which transfer is sought.

Considerable misunderstanding exists at present among Government employés concerning the proper methods of securing a transfer. A quite wide-spread idea obtains, particularly with new appointees, that it is only necessary to file an application for transfer and that the same will be made in due time. Such a proceeding is a waste of hope.

When seeking a transfer the first thing to do is to ascertain whether a vacancy exists in the office to which transfer is desired; without a vacancy no transfer or appointment can be made. If a vacancy exist there is little doubt that efforts will be made to fill it by promotion. In the event it is impracticable to fill the place by promotion it will be filled either by transfer of some one from another office or through original appointment. Having ascertained that the place will not be filled by promotion, it is proper to make formal application for transfer, filing with this letter of application a full personal history citing the various accomplishments had by the applicant and furnishing substantial references, including in all cases that of the head of the bureau where at present employed. If the proper qualifications are expressed in the application and good references given it will probably result in a reply requesting the applicant to present himself for a personal interview with the executive officer in the office where the vacancy exists. If the applicant make as favorable an impression at the interview as in his letter of application, some kind of an understanding will be reached looking to his transfer.

Up to this point in the proceeding the applicant has been the moving spirit. The remainder of the transaction rests with the office in which the vacancy exists; neither the person seeking transfer nor the office from which he is to be transferred

need be consulted in regard to the matter. Instead, the department holding the vacancy makes inquiry of the Civil Service Commission as to the applicant's eligibility for transfer; upon receipt of a satisfactory answer a formal requisition is made upon the Civil Service Commission for the person's transfer. The department from which transfer is made is apprised of the requisition and, as soon as the transfer is approved, the applicant for the first time is officially notified.

The question may be asked at this point, How am I to know when and where a suitable vacancy exists? There is but one way to ascertain this, and that is by inquiry. When a vacancy occurs some one in the office where it exists is almost sure to have a friend whom he desires to favor and loses no time in seeing that friend. The friend then acts on the lines just indicated. The existence of desirable vacancies is usually kept so secret that persons on the outside do not hear of them until they have been filled.

The most systematic way to go about getting a transfer is to scan the estimates prepared by the Secretary of the Treasury, which are printed in the autumn before the Congress convenes, noting the additional employés requested by the various Government offices in all parts of the United States. Having selected a number of desirable prospective vacancies, the congressional legislation looking to a creation of the places should be closely followed. As soon as any of the new

places are authorized the matter of a transfer should be taken up with the office affected by the new legislation; lack of promptness at this time may result in failure to secure transfer. By instituting a vigorous campaign of inquiry desirable positions can sometimes be located.

It will be observed from the manner of securing transfers that the department or office from which transfer is sought has little or nothing to say about the proceeding and that it has no recourse in the event another department calls for an employé's transfer. This has proved unfortunate for some offices which, through poor pay or unattractive conditions, have lost many of the most efficient employés through transfer. Certain bureaus of the War Department and the Navy Department, in particular, have been heavy losers through this drain of employés who, having received training there, have been transferred to other departments.

The practice of Government departments competing against each other for the services of desirable employés by inducements of higher salaries has been partly remedied by a law enacted in 1906 providing that no employé shall be eligible for transfer until he shall have served three years in the department from which he seeks transfer; the law does not interfere with transfers from one office to another in the same department. Prior to the passage of this law the transfer question was a serious problem for

some offices, which served as training schools for other departments.

REINSTATEMENT.—Reinstatement may be made to a position vacated within one year, provided the place is still open and that the person formerly holding it was honorably separated from the service. As in the case of transfer, reinstatement cannot be made where no vacancy exists. Thus, if a person resign from a Government position and another person is appointed to fill the vacancy, reinstatement cannot be made. If, however, the successor be promoted or another vacancy of the same kind occur in the office, reinstatement may be effected.

All that is necessary in the case of reinstatement is for the applicant to address a letter to the head of the office from which he was separated stating that he desires to be reinstated and citing his reasons therefor. His name will then be kept on file in the office for reference in the event of vacancy and the office will have a double advantage in being saved the delay in filling the place through certification by the Civil Service Commission and in securing an employé who is familiar with the work. Application should not be made to the Civil Service Commission, nor to any other office than that in which the person was formerly employed, inasmuch as appointment to any other office would be original appointment and not a reinstatement.

Reinstatements are not as numerous as might

be supposed. Civil-service employés well know that the Government is a sure and steady paymaster in hard times as in prosperous ones, and they think twice before surrendering a position. When an employé does resign he has usually laid pretty good plans for success elsewhere and so will not need reinstatement.

CHAPTER VIII

SALARIES

WHATEVER is done is for pay. Whether one work or rest, payment in some form is expected. The man on vacation expects payment in the form of health or recreation, the housewife looks for payment in the joys of a well-kept home, the merchant behind the counter receives money for his wares, the man at the desk sells his services. Remuneration is a fixed principle, and, as it involves self, it is necessarily an interesting question.

Money has no intrinsic value, being merely a representative of value; man cannot eat it or keep his body warm with it, but he may exchange it for food and raiment. Therefore, he is willing to put himself to inconvenience and distress to possess himself of it. The selling of service antedates the invention of money. It is a custom lost in antiquity and everywhere recognized as honorable, and it forms the basis of progress.

Salary is a relative term and one that is extremely elastic. The high salary paid for a man's services may be the merest pittance compared

with their actual value; and it is safe to say that one rarely gets what he is worth. If the wage-earner received what his services are worth his employer would have no profit, and, therefore, would have no incentive to give employment. It is the employer's prospect of making a profit off every employé that forms a cardinal principle in the nation's prosperity.

Natural resources in themselves make no nation great or rich. Iron, coal, and gold would lie forever in the earth were it not for labor's hand. Yet the man that performs the actual work of making the nation's wealth is the one who receives the least for it; he receives a fixed wage, his employer takes the profit. Men do not get rich by working for wages, whether they be $1.00 or $100.00 a day; it is only by investing the savings from that $1.00 or $100.00 a day, and so participating in the profits and labor of other wage-earners, that anyone can hope to acquire more than a mere living. The commercial value of service fluctuates daily; in times of prosperity, when everybody spends money, wages rise; in times of stringency they contract—all due to the profits employers can make. And this taking of profit on the wage-earner's labor is right in principle and right in practice. It is the foundation of business. Whatever theories socialism may advance, individualism has proved its value in the commercial world.

The fluctuation of wages in accordance with the law of supply and demand is a fact well fixed in the people's mind; it is not expected that the same remuneration for the same class of work will obtain for an indefinite period. If it did, there would be little use for savings banks and investment companies, inasmuch as the wage-earner would spend all his earnings against a like income next year. There must be a relation between the wage received and the buying power of that wage. When wages advance, the buying power of a dollar declines in proportion; when they decline, a dollar will buy more. This principle is recognized by the business and the labor world. Labor unions regulate their scales of wages according to the buying power of a dollar; employers accordingly regulate the prices of the goods they sell, that they may make their profit.

However widely this is recognized throughout the country, the Government is not guided by it in its wage relations with its employés. The Federal employé receives the same pay whether wages in general are high or low; in times of commercial prosperity, when the necessities of life are expensive, he is at a disadvantage. Conversely, in times of business depression, when the buying power of a dollar is highly increased, the public employé reaps the benefit. From this it will be seen that the Government employé is prosperous when the country at large is

depressed, and vice versa. The natural state of the nation is one of prosperity; the office-holder, therefore, must receive a higher wage than is paid for similar work in the commercial world that he may live in accordance with his station.

The salary of the Federal employé comes in for a great deal of attention by the public. The popular conception makes the income either "fat" or "lucrative": the President receives a "lucrative" salary; the departmental clerk—who, by the way, is always an "official"—gets a "fat" salary. The notion of exorbitant pay for public employés originated in the early days of our Government, when the purchasing power of a dollar was much more than it is to-day. Practically all the salaries paid by the Government are scaled according to those paid long before the Civil War. In no sense of the word have they kept pace with or even closely followed the relative increase of wages paid in the business world. Had they done so the clerk who now receives $100 a month would receive $200, and the bureau chief who receives $5000 a year would receive double that amount.

Salaries paid by the Government may be grouped, for convenience, into two great classes, *viz.*, (1) those paid the higher officials, and (2) those paid employés, who constitute over nine-tenths of the whole number on the Federal pay-roll. The "higher officials" occupy such posts

as senator, representative, cabinet officer, secretary of a department, chief of bureau, judge, attorney, member of a commission, and principal executive officer. All the others come under the head of employés.

In a general survey of Government salaries compared with those paid for similar requirements in business life two facts strike the observer with force. One is, that the pay of Group No. 1, or what are here termed the higher officials, is much less than that paid for parallel talent in foreign governments and in commercial life. This under payment begins with the department chief clerks and increases in rapid proportion in passing up the line to bureau chiefs, assistant secretaries of departments, United States attorneys, judges of circuit and district courts, first and second class postmasters, diplomats, representatives, senators, judges of the supreme court, and lastly the President.

Foreign powers, some of them small powers at that, pay their rulers millions without a murmur, whereas the President of the United States receives but $50,000—less than many private corporations pay their executive heads who have less ability and less responsibility than the governor of one of our small States.

The civil list of Great Britain's ruler is $2,284,200, the Emperor of Germany receives $3,143,859, annually, and the President of France $228,000; the King of Greece, one of Europe's

small countries, receives in one year more than our President does in a whole term of office, as he gets $260,000. Such salaries make the remuneration of our chief executive look small indeed. A plan is now before the Congress to increase the salary of the President to $100,000 a year, and it is highly probable this will become a law in the very near future ; but even this figure is far from munificent.

If paid according to the riches of this country and in a class with powers like Great Britain, Germany, or France, the President of the United States should receive at least $500,000 a year, the vice-president $75,000, cabinet officers $50,000, members of the Congress and senators $25,000, and heads of bureaus $15,000; army and navy officers should receive from $50,000 for the highest rank to $3000 for the lowest commissioned officer.

High places in the business world command princely sums, but the Government does not even approach par in the matter of salaries for high officials when compared with the money rewards in commercial institutions. This is a rich nation; the country is overflowing with natural wealth and teeming with millionaires, yet the men who are responsible for good administration receive mere pittances in comparison with what they are worth and with what business concerns are willing to pay them. There is scarcely a head of any Government bureau or principal ad-

ministrative officer who could not go immediately into the service of a corporation at double his Federal salary. Indeed, commercial and financial houses are continuously making offers to Government officials and in many cases securing their services.

Here, then, we have an altogether unique condition and one which elicits the question, If this be so, why do men of recognized ability seek Government office in preference to business careers? Several answers suggest themselves, depending upon the individual viewpoint. From all the possible answers one fact stands out conspicuously and with unfailing clearness: Our country has a supply of men, capable and patriotic, who rightly concede that the citizen's first duty is to his Government, not to gold. This is a matter for national congratulation, particularly so in view of the commercial trend of the times. As for the officials, the holding of a Government post carries with it honor and prestige, and there is considerable satisfaction and righteous pride in knowing that one has something to do with shaping a great nation's destiny.

When we come to the second grouping of salaries, *viz.*, the nine-tenths who are called for convenience "employés," there is a different story to tell. The average salary of this nine-tenths is considerably higher than that paid for similar service in commercial establishments.

There are many, of course, who receive less than they could get elsewhere and others who get much more than any private concern would be willing to pay them.

This class comprises the vast army of clerks, minor officials, mechanics, messengers, watchmen and laborers, inspectors, examiners, agents, members of scientific bureaus, and miscellaneous employés. These employés are paid salaries ranging from $240 to $2000 a year; their positions are as a rule held for life or during good behavior; they have been appointed through competitive examination, and enjoy all the privileges and rights accruing under the civil-service law. Their average annual salary is approximately $1200.

While it is true that Government employés receive a higher average wage than is paid for similar service elsewhere, the requirements demanded of them are more exacting than in business occupations. Ordinarily the business man accepts the service of any man who can do his work satisfactorily and his interest goes no farther; the employé may be what he will or do as he pleases outside of working hours, he may have high ideals or be utterly lacking in manhood. An honest day's work is expected of the mechanic and nothing more, the shop-keeper's interest in his clerks ends when the shutters are put up at night, the office manager gauges his men by the accuracy and speed with which they perform the

duties assigned them, the editor is concerned with his employés just so far as they are able to gather and write up news. The average employer cares nothing for his hired men or women, looking upon them merely as commercial propositions out of which to make profit. The employer is bluntly candid in admitting this, but he is not to blame more than the employé, whose interest in his employer quite generally ends with the pay envelope. There is little interest found between employer and employé, little sympathy, little regard for each other, little real co-operation. And there is nothing particularly wrong with it; it is simply business. The relationship between employer and employé is based entirely upon commercial reasons, the whole matter resolving itself into a question of profits.

The Government does not look at it this way. The Government is not conducted as a money-making institution; it is administered in the people's interests. Hence, there is no incentive to pay its servants a minimum wage for a maximum amount of labor. It follows that the profit that accrues to the commercial employer has no place in the Government's reckoning with its employé. For this reason the civil-service employé has a financial advantage over the one in commercial life so far as mere salary is concerned.

Beginning at the bottom of several prominent

groups of employés and comparing them with parallel groups in commercial life the differences may readily be appreciated by a glance at the following table:

Groups	Annual compensation in Government	Private business
Laborers, *i.e.*, requiring no qualifications other than physical.....	$ 420 to $720	$ 240 to $600
Mechanics.....	720 to 1400	600 to 1200
Junior clerical positions.....	600 to 1000	300 to 720
Senior clerical positions.....	1200 to 1800	900 to 1200
Minor executive positions,—chief clerk, office manager, inspector, etc.....	1800 to 3000	1200 to 1800
Junior scientists....	720 to 1200	720 to 1000
Senior "	1200 to 5000	1200 up.

Clerical and minor executive places have a special advantage in salary over similar places in business life. When a clerk in the business office reaches the dignity of a $1200 salary, considerable more than mere clerical work is expected of him; whereas, the $1200 clerk in the Government office is only fairly paid. In respect to duties and responsibilities, the work of the $1800 Government clerk compares with that of the $1200 man in business life.

While this superior salary appears to be a decided asset in favor of the civil-service clerk,

it is his all. The nature of Federal work prevents, with rare exceptions, employés from being brought into close business relations with the commercial world. Public employés unfortunately escape the hard knocks in business life that count for personal monetary success. There are to-day hundreds of Government employés who, had they been trained in the commercial office instead of in the Federal bureau, would own a thriving business; as it is, they have only a fair income assured for life. While no one can suppose that all employés in the world of trade would succeed as business men, the chances are there for those who are adapted to money-making; in the Government the opportunities for money-making are practically nil.

Ordinarily public employés are slow to resign to enter business for there is a strong tendency, an almost unavoidable circumstance ever present, that peculiarly unfits men in Government service for taking up the responsibilities of commercial life. The young man starting out in life views the Government employé with envy because the latter receives more salary than appears consistent with relative conditions; but his lack of experience prevents him observing that the lists are open in the commercial world to all but the Federal employé. Therefore, it is only right and fair that the man who gives up his chances on the commercial battlefield for a Government career should receive better pay than he who

may grasp opportunities to enrich himself. There should be compensation for loss of opportunity.

In eras of unusual prosperity when wages and salaries in the business world rise beyond their natural limits, Government employés find less encouragement in their compensation. In such times resignations to enter corporate employ are numerous owing to offers of better pay, the best clerks and employés naturally having the advantage.

The Director of the Census says [1]: "Frequent changes occur in the personnel of this force, and it is a noteworthy fact that those clerks who drop out are largely from the class whom the office can ill afford to lose. Their special training in the methods of statistical work and their aptitude in this work win for them positions in private life where the emolument is larger than the Government is willing to pay, and the opportunities for advancement are more frequent. It so happens, then, that the office is losing clerks who were retained in the permanent organization because of their special qualifications, and it is not possible to supply their places from the regular registers of the Civil Service Commission."

The Quartermaster-General [2] also deprecates this condition in the following words: "A good man's services are certainly worth as much to the Government as to a commercial concern, and it

[1] Report Director of Census for 1904–05, p. 18.

[2] Annual Report, Quartermaster-General, U. S. A., 1905.

ought to be possible to pay such enough to retain them; there is no trouble about the indifferently qualified ones remaining in the service." It will be noted that only the best employés are called into private service, a broad hint to those satisfied with mediocre ability.

High Federal officials, few of whom are rich, are usually in comfortable circumstances. A large proportion have business interests and are not dependent upon the Government for their sole income. The big army of employés, on the contrary, have nowhere but the Government to look to for their livelihood; few of them have private incomes sufficiently large to enable them to live independently of the Government.

The following shows the percentage of employés holding competitive positions in each salary class. The percentages may vary slightly from year to year, but it is unlikely that any wide variation will occur; for, according to the present conditions of the civil service, the equilibrium seems to be well maintained:

Class	Percentage of employés	Class	Percentage of employés
A	19.0%	1	9.0%
B	11.7%	2	5.0%
C	5.7%	3	1.8%
D	23.6%	4	1.6%
E	18.4%	5	1.2%
		6	1.0%
		Piecework	1.0%

Whatever the size of the public employé's salary, whether $1.00 a day or $50,000 a year, it is a matter of public knowledge. The name of every employé is entered in the *Official Register*, commonly called *The Blue Book*, together with the title of his position and the amount of his compensation. This *Blue Book* is published in two large volumes and reference to it will disclose the salary paid your best friend or worst enemy. Owing to the practice of publishing salaries it is useless for the Federal employé to lie about the salary he receives, as is sometimes done in private employment when it is desirable to have it appear that a salary is larger than it really is. Business men in the neighborhood of Federal offices are not slow to familiarize themselves with the true income of public employés seeking to establish a line of credit with them. There are advantages and disadvantages in this system. One advantage is, the public employé is prevented from living beyond his means. The principal objection lies in the tendency to make salaries a topic of social talk in communities where numbers of Federal employés are stationed.

ENTRANCE SALARIES.—Under the civil-service regulations of many foreign governments entrance to public posts is only made at the lowest salaries of the various classes, the higher places being filled entirely by promotion. This system obtains in our civil service only to a limited extent. A

few bureaus make it a practice; but owing to varied conditions it is not found practicable in all instances. A strong tendency, however, is developing to adjust affairs and make it possible as a regular procedure.

Appointment at low pay and promotion up the line seems to be in accord with the spirit of the merit system. One of the causes that makes this practice inapplicable is the wide variation in entrance salaries for the same class of work. Some offices, for example, start their clerical staff as low as $600 a year, while other offices start their appointees at a minimum of $900 for similar work. As promotions usually rise by increments of $120 or $200 a year it would take an appointee at $600 some time to reach the entrance salary of $900 accorded his more lucky competitor.

Relative examination ratings have nothing to do with entrance salaries, as seems commonly to be understood. Thus, one of two competitors in a given examination may attain a rating of 85 and the other 80. The one making 85 may have expressed his willingness to accept an entrance salary as low as $720 a year, while the other stipulated $900 as his minimum. Appointment would be made accordingly, the lower grade man securing a much better entrance salary. Or, competitors A, B, and C, each with a rating of 80, may be certified by the Civil Service Commission to an office where the entrance salary is

$720 a year. The appointing officer selects A for appointment. B and C are sent back to the Commission and restored to the list of eligibles. Another office calls for three eligibles. B and C, with D the third highest eligible, are certified for the position, which pays an entrance salary of $900 a year. B is chosen. In like manner C may be certified to a place paying $1000 a year to begin, or as low as $600 a year.

It will be seen from this that entrance salary is largely a matter of chance. If a vacancy occur in an office paying $900 as a minimum entrance salary, certification will be made to that office from the list of eligibles signifying their willingness to accept that salary. It is here that the method of making appointments is weak. It is manifestly unjust that one candidate be appointed in an office paying low salaries and another, no better if as well qualified, be certified to an office paying high salaries. It does not take new appointees long to learn what entrance salaries are paid in other offices and they are quick to compare them with their own, and become satisfied or discontented accordingly, varying with the degree of inequality.

Competitors in the examination room usually strive to make the highest possible ratings in the belief that the higher the rating the higher entrance salary they will command. It would indeed be an ideal plan were this the case; but the situation has been thoroughly canvassed,

not only by our Government but by civil-service officers of foreign governments, and no method for its attainment appears practicable. The best that can be done, so far as experience at present goes, is for each bureau to make a practice of appointing freshmen at low salaries and promoting up the line. This method is urged upon all offices by the Civil Service Commission; but, while it is observed in some respects, it is not feasible at all times. No office can be justly criticised for seeking to obtain the best assistants available, and first-class assistants command higher initial compensation than those with less experience.

It would be absurd for the head of an office to turn aside a particularly valuable eligible and promote one of less efficiency merely for the sake of complying with a theoretical ideal. Such a course would not be for the best interests of the public service, for which the whole merit system is designed.

What is a fair entrance salary? This question rises in the mind of every successful candidate who, it is assumed, wants to enter Government service at the average compensation paid his competitors. Owing to lack of information upon this point, many candidates refuse appointment, while others accept places at much less than the average entering salary. The question of entrance pay affects only places in the clerical, quasi-clerical, and supra-clerical classes where pro-

motions may be expected to follow at intervals as vacancies occur and experience warrants; trades positions, with few exceptions, provide no system of promotion for incumbents, as it is assumed that anyone who can perform his mechanical duties in a workmanlike manner is a journeyman and entitled to the journeyman's pay.

When the mechanic becomes a foreman he is out of the journeyman class, and becomes a master. A young machinist may run a lathe quite as well as one who has had years of experience, as the whole thing resolves itself into a question of mechanics such as centring and tool adjustment; but when it comes to the clerical positions the problem becomes one of individualism. Clerical work varies so widely and its relative value differs so much that a uniform entrance standard is out of the question except for positions like mail carriers and clerkships in the railway mail service. Therefore, in speaking of entrance salary it will be understood as applying to the clerical and related grades of service.

Taking the departments at Washington as an index the following are average entrance salaries:

Clerks	$ 900	a year
Bookkeepers	1000	"
Draftsmen	1200	"
Scientific aids	720	"

CLERKS.—This term includes a large number

of office-holders not rated as clerks, such as copyists, stenographers, typewriters, transcribers, indexers, cataloguers, assistant librarians, certain kinds of attendants, translators, statisticians, section chiefs, abstractors, assistant chiefs of division, and a large number of miscellaneous employés whose duties are of a clerical nature. When candidates in this class accept appointment at less than $900 a year they are entering at less than a fair average compensation and are handicapped accordingly.

Many offices provide two grades of clerkships below $900, *viz.*, $720 and $840 a year, equivalent to $60 and $70 a month respectively in commercial offices. Eligibles accepting places paying an entrance salary less than $900 a year almost invariably find that the opportunities for promotion are no better, and often less favorable, than in offices paying a fair entrance salary; and it is a serious mistake, from the candidate's viewpoint, to accept small salaries in the hope that promotion will come soon. Offices making meagre provision for clerical assistance are by no means generous when the question of promotion arises. Conversely, offices and bureaus providing fair entrance salaries are to be given preference by the eligible in accepting appointment, especially if he be well up in experience and anticipates making Government service a career. It should be remembered, in connection with the question of promotion, that under the

law an employé cannot be transferred to another department without having served three years in the department from which he seeks to be transferred. Formerly obtaining promotion by transfer offered considerable encouragement to one accepting a low entrance salary; it does so no longer. It will be seen from this that the acceptance of less than the average entrance pay works a hindrance financially, and discontent and discouragement often follow in the clerk's path.

There is a tendency, growing stronger year by year, to raise the entrance pay of clerical positions to a uniform basis of $900, particularly in view of the three-year transfer clause. A better quality of work is observable in bureaus making fair provision for clerical and other assistants, due to the fact that such offices secure a better class of appointees than offices holding out smaller financial inducements. There is no doubt that a law to this effect would be of great value to offices now paying low salaries, where frequent clerical changes interfere with the transaction of public business by making it necessary to train new appointees. The changes in the personnel receiving small salaries are very numerous compared with those occurring among employés receiving good pay, due to the individual struggling to obtain better financial inducements.

The value of uniform entrance salaries is well seen in the case of railway mail clerks and mail

carriers. The entrance pay of these two large classes of employés is fixed, as are the increments of promotion. A mail clerk in Ohio, for instance, knows that he receives as much for his work as is paid anywhere in the country and has no cause for jealousy, discontent, or a feeling of unfair treatment. He has no cause, other than a nomadic spirit, to seek a transfer to some other locality. The entrance salaries of these two classes are $600 a year for carriers and $800 for railway mail clerks. These entrance salaries are not up to the general average of departmental clerks, owing to the fact that the requirements in the way of business training and office experience are less than in the case of the departmental clerk.

BOOKKEEPERS.—This includes accountants, fiscal clerks, disbursing assistants, time-keepers, paymasters, etc. Considerable experience and a practical knowledge of accounts is required to secure a position as bookkeeper. The ordinary graduate from a commercial college can hardly secure a place as bookkeeper, as his lack of experience is against him. The work of the Government bookkeeper is usually tedious and wearing, and it can in no manner be compared with the bookkeeping practised in small commercial establishments. Entrance salaries as low as $720 are rarely offered bookkeepers, though $900 is an average in a few offices. Some offices pay $1200 upon entrance; $1000 is a fair average.

DRAFTSMEN.—There has been such a demand for many years in commercial life for first-class draftsmen that the Government has scarcely been able to cover its demand for draftsmen at $1200 a year. Hydrographic and topographic draftsmen usually command more. The entrance salaries for copyist-draftsmen range as low as $720, there being no uniformity; clerks are assigned to this kind of work if they prove handy with the pencil.

SCIENTIFIC AIDS.—By this term is meant junior assistants in agriculture, the engineering sciences, medicine, and mathematics. Some aids, particularly in a number of bureaus under the Department of Agriculture, receive as low as $480 a year; these employés, however, are regarded much in the light of student-assistants and they receive, in addition to their nominal compensation, special training. The examinations for aid are difficult, the requirements in the way of scientific learning high, and the work anything but easy. The entrance salary of $720, therefore, is not munificent and would not be worth while were there no hopes of professional advancement.

Entrance salary, on the whole, to any position wherever found is largely in the hands of the applicant, inasmuch as all candidates are given a chance at the examination to state their minimum entrance pay. Competitors should not specify less than they feel they are worth in the hope of adjusting the matter after appointment

or by forcing a higher salary from the Government by declining appointment.

A good rule to follow in deciding what is a fair entrance salary is to add 25 per cent. to the average salary paid for the same class of work in commercial life when dealing with clerical or semi-clerical positions, 10 per cent. in the case of trades positions, 15 per cent. for unskilled labor; deduct 10 per cent. from commercial salaries in the case of junior scientists and minor executive positions, and deduct 25 to 75 per cent. from commercial salaries for senior Government scientists and higher executive positions.

CHAPTER IX

SALARIES—*Continued*

A MOVEMENT looking toward salary readjustment has been in progress for a number of years. This movement is growing, but slowly, so slowly as to be hardly perceptible. Legislators, with whom rests the power of fixing salaries, are not permitted to act entirely according to their personal wishes; they represent the people and the people are exceedingly sensitive in the matter of remuneration. Right or wrong, reasonable or unreasonable, the people of this country do not countenance radical and widespread departures from the remuneration now paid public employés. If these changes look to a general increase in pay the cry of "Salary grabbers!" is raised; if a general cut were suggested the people would censure the Government for its stinginess. The question, therefore, is resolved largely into one of politics, and the lawmakers are, in a measure, compelled to proceed cautiously.

INEQUALITIES OF PAY.—Each session of the Congress sees improvement in this or that branch of the service; sometimes it is the clerical force that receives recognition, at other times the

scientific corps, and now and then the higher officials. This method of reform, proceeding on the principle that the world was not made in a day, accomplishes good; but it does not correct the glaring inequalities of salary.

The question of different pay in different offices for the same kind of work has been for many years a thorn in the flesh of executive officers. Committee after committee has been appointed to investigate the various branches with a view of adjusting differences. The result has been a clipping of salaries here and increasing them there. These committees have done a great deal; but, as in private business, the personal equation is too much involved to apply an inflexible rule to all cases. Thus, Banker X may pay his principal bookkeeper $10,000 a year, while Banker Y pays his but $2000, though both accountants be equally competent and the business interests involved equal; there are many reasons why Banker X sees fit to pay more than the average salary and just as many why Banker Y pays less. Exactly the same principle is applicable to the hundreds of Government offices.

Offices paying low salaries have good reasons therefor and those paying high salaries for similar work have just as good reasons. It all depends upon the point of view. One executive officer may believe in attracting first-class men by inducements of high salaries and make up

his estimates accordingly. Another official may take the stand that it is wrong in principle for Government offices to bid against each other in making up their office personnel. Both reasons are good and both officers will secure good men, but at different salaries.

Inequalities of salaries are often the source of discontent, particularly to the minor grades of employés. The higher the grade of service the less complaint is heard among employés, although the inequalities of pay prevail quite as extensively as in the lower grades.

That there are injustices worked by the salary system as now operated by the Government is unquestionable. Viewed by the employé, it is galling to know that one receives less pay than the average for similar work; and it is not a matter for self-congratulation, in the event of over pay, to know that the increment is attached to the position rather than to the incumbent. But unearned money buys as much as that which is hard earned, and no one appreciates this quite as much as the victim of inequalities. He is an exceptional man indeed whom injustice cannot sting; he has in him the elements of great success. Men of this kind are as few in the Government as in private life. As the average man is far from great, we can hardly expect him to show many elements of greatness; he, therefore, should not be too severely censured for complaining of injustice and resigning at the first favorable opportunity.

The complaints arising because of inequalities of pay are not confined to employés. Executive officers come in for their share, but their complaints take another direction. Their troubles come about through the resignations of employés whom they have trained. It is far from pleasing to know that your office is used as a sort of training school for other offices which pay better salaries for similar work.

Whatever the inequalities of pay, Government employés have the satisfaction of knowing that inequalities obtain to a greater, far greater extent, in commercial offices. When one is the victim of inequality the best way to do is to "grin and bear it" and watch for an opportunity to secure a transfer or appointment to a more favored place. Whining accomplishes nothing; it makes a person disagreeable to himself and to others.

THE DOCKAGE SYSTEM.—The dockage system that prevails so extensively throughout the business world is recognized in a modified form in Federal offices and workshops. Instead of deducting from the pay because of absence from duty, the time used by an employé, either in being late at his office or otherwise, is charged to the employé's leave of absence. Thus, if a clerk arrive one hour late that hour is charged against his thirty days' annual leave of absence; and instead of having thirty days' vacation, he will have but twenty-nine days six hours. Persons working by the hour or by the day are "docked"

for lost time as in the business world, inasmuch as they are not entitled to any vacation with pay.

SALARIES HERE AND ABROAD.—Practically the same comparison may be drawn between the salaries paid by this Government and those paid by foreign powers as has been drawn between the salaries paid by the Government and those paid in commercial life. The lower grades of employés under foreign Governments receive from 10 to 60 per cent. less than those employed by the United States Government, while the higher officials receive much more than our officials, in some cases ten times as much. Thus an average clerk under our system receives $1200 a year while in Great Britain he gets but half that amount. Some Governments require beginners to serve a year without pay.

The same comparison may be made between all other corresponding positions, the high places paying more than those under our Government and the lower positions less. This comparison pertains not only to Great Britain, but to all first-class and many second-class powers. Whether the high places in our Government would be better filled if they paid more and whether as good service could be secured for less money than is at present paid in the immense army of subordinate places is an open question.

PROMOTIONS.—The question of promotion is an important one to every employé of the Government. This covers all branches and all classes of

the intricate network of the civil-service system. Few persons would care to take service under the Government in a position that paid a fixed salary for life, though that salary were considerably better than similar service would bring in other branches of endeavor. There is something in every normal man that demands more, something that continually hopes for betterment; and it is this eternal struggle for improvement that spells success. An ambitionless man is of small use to himself or to the world. It is right to hope and strive for better pay, provided those efforts be confined within reasonable limits. There is such a thing as demanding too much and demanding it too often; this is not fair to the other man.

As in business life, the workers divide themselves into two distinct classes: the planners and the plodders. The planners are the men with ideas, who map out policies; the plodders are the vast multitude of employés who do the actual work in carrying out the policies, the men who dig and delve in the workshops and at desks, and who rack their brains and muscles in weaving the great fabric of progress. Neither can get along without the other and eminent successes have developed in both classes. In private business the plodder seldom rises above $100 a month, in the Government he rarely exceeds $1800 a year; in either case he may reach these figures by sheer persistence. The planners have

no limit to their financial attainments in business life and they are the ones who get the finest plums in the Government orchard.

Promotion is another word for progress, whether in the Government or outside. Many erroneous and fantastic ideas prevail concerning promotions of public employés. It is widely supposed that close attention to business assures promotion. Promotions are seldom made without efficiency; but, as a matter of fact, attention to business, faithfulness and efficiency are not in themselves sufficient to win success under the Government any more than they are in private enterprise. Merit is necessary and few rise without it; but mere merit is not enough. More must be had to attain a high degree of success. There are to-day hundreds upon hundreds of clerks in the departments whose goal has been reached years ago; they are good, faithful, efficient workers. They do their work well, arrive at their place of business promptly, are gentlemanly and courteous in their manner; but they have become cogs in the wheel, to perform the same work day after day till worn out and then comes the end.

The American Government, with rare exception, makes no provision for the automatic promotion of its office-holders. Promotions of civilians come through haphazard channels. Notwithstanding the spirit of the civil-service regulations, providing that the higher positions shall be filled by promotion from the lower grades,

there are so many contingencies that "wire-pulling" and personal influence are brought to bear when the question of promotion arises. To rise, even on merit, it is necessary to be known. The plodding clerk, occupying some remote desk in a big office, will be passed over, though it be his turn to be promoted, in favor of a better known and more aggressive person.

Sometimes the executive heads of offices go outside for candidates to fill vacancies that could and should be filled by promotion. It is not necessary nor relevant to discuss the ethics of this practice. It is done, and not infrequently so. Sometimes an honest desire to secure the best to be had impels the action; sometimes a personal friend wants a place; sometimes it is a question of politics. This being so, it behooves every man to look after his interests, but to do it in a way that will not make himself a nuisance to the office.

The office-holder should keep close track of his relative rank when promotion time comes around. If he be employed in an office where outsiders are drafted to fill vacancies, he should have a word with the head of the office; if his office complies with the spirit of the civil-service regulations in filling the higher places by promotion from the lower positions, it will not be necessary to call attention to his expectations. Happily the latter practice is more common.

Many times the personal equation enters into

the question of promotion, especially in those offices where the salaries are paid out of "lump sums." The lump sum makes it possible for administrative officers to promote certain employés and hold back others. It is to an employé's interest, therefore, to let his merits be known as widely as possible; that is, to put it bluntly, advertise himself. This advertising should be done in a modest way and all kinds of false claims avoided. A knowledge of the fact that no one else, either in the office or out of it, can do better or more work, will cause a great deal of comment which is sure to reach the ears of the chief and cause him to take notice when he otherwise might be blind. If an employé does this and makes friends his chances for promotion will be enhanced.

It is never wise to antagonize an executive officer or his policy; no good can come of it to either party. Antagonism is sure to breed antagonism, and it results in poor work and discontent; where it develops, it is best that a change of positions be made. Balking, boasting, and threatening seldom result in promotion. A cheerful disposition, readiness to demonstrate a superior efficiency to any one at any time, and the ability to make and keep friends are valuable assets at promotion time.

There is such a thing as favoritism under the Government, just as there is in any other line of work. Government officers are human to the

same extent the employés are. It is natural that, when making promotions, they should favor the ones they know best, other things being equal. This is proper and conducive to the best execution of public business. Criticism is sometimes aimed at officials for observing this, but it is practicable and results in good; and when a thing is both practicable and good strong arguments indeed are necessary to convince the reasonable-minded to the contrary.

Promotions in the civil service are quite generally made according to seniority, but there is no rule or regulation that will not permit the promotion of the best man available when a vacancy occurs. And why should this not be done? There is a strong disposition to promote on the strict principle of efficiency rather than on seniority, particularly in filling the places carrying considerable responsibility. Vacancies in the lower grades are as a rule filled by seniority promotion; but vacancies in executive places under the merit system, such as those of chief clerk and chief of division, are seldom filled otherwise than by favoritism based on merit. And in this connection attention is invited to the word *merit*.

Those seeking promotion should bear in mind that an appropriation must be available before promotions can be made. Those holding appointment on the "statutory roll" cannot be promoted where there is no vacancy; those paid

from "lump sums" should ascertain whether funds are available before launching a campaign for an increase in salary. Employés are sometimes heard to complain, usually to each other, that "it is about time they are promoted." Complaining employés should ascertain whether it really is time, or whether they merely think so. Regulations governing promotions are in force throughout the departments and employés should familiarize themselves with those regulations before lodging complaint either with friends or with their superiors.

Promoting "over the head" of employés usually results in discontent and spasmodic indignation among those "jumped," but excites little or no comment among those not directly interested. Executive officers usually know what they are about when they make recommendations for promotion; it is not to the interest of an office manager to fill the best places with incompetents. It is best to select lieutenants that will prove the most valuable in building up a bureau and maintaining its work on a creditable foundation. It would be absurd and unwise for a bureau head to promote solely on seniority regardless of efficiency. Such a practice would strike at the root of the civil-service system by taking away the reward of merit; superior efficiency would command no premium, and there would be no incentive for a man to do his best. Instead, work would develop into an

uninteresting and unattractive grind that could result in nothing creditable.

Some foreign Governments operate their civil-service systems under various schemes of automatic promotions, depending upon efficiency. Under these systems all civil employés are appointed to the lowest grades and rise by periodical increments to the highest. By the operation of compulsory transfers an employé becomes familiar with a large number of governmental branches and a wide variety of public work, and he rests assured of promotion. Such plans correspond with service promotions in our military and naval branches. There are advantages and disadvantages of the system too numerous to itemize. The advantages appear to predominate, and there is a feeling in many quarters in America that our system would be improved by instituting something of the kind. Appointees wishing to make Government service a career should investigate these systems and keep abreast of the times. By so doing they will become more valuable public servants.

CHAPTER X

OPPORTUNITIES

OPPORTUNITY is a gem in the rough. It is trampled under foot, recognized by the few, and often spurned when recognized. The world is full of men who can point back to a time in their lives and say, "That was my opportunity, but I missed it." There is nothing sadder than the tragedy of a misspent life, especially when its possessor is a man well equipped by nature for great usefulness. Next to the wasted life is the picture of an old man brooding over lost opportunities.

Life cannot be lived over again, but the present is always here to be improved. To-day holds out opportunities as golden as those lost yesterday. The earth can never give up all its gems, nor can the mine of opportunity ever become exhausted. A glance about, a discerning eye, and a little patience in the harness go a long way toward recovering the past for those who have lost and in building a proud structure for those who have just begun life's battle.

It does not take an over-wise man to see opportunities. Opportunities are forced upon us.

It is not as necessary to see an opportunity as it is to seize it when it comes our way. Like success, opportunity has a relative meaning. Popular conception makes the word synonymous with "chance to make money." This is the principal definition and certainly the most potent to a large class of Americans. With respect to the business world the word has no other meaning, and we have come to measure, to a wide extent, all careers by the standard of commerce. The learned professions are commercialized in a degree, in that the highest pay is a magnet to attract the most capable. Clerical positions are quite generally commercial propositions. Mechanical places are simply a plain sale of services to the highest bidder. So in speaking of opportunities in Government service the ordinary man is almost sure to measure them by the amount of money they bring.

Lack of Financial Opportunity.—As a first premise it should be stated emphatically and unequivocally that there is no opportunity whatever to grow rich in the United States civil service. Men expecting to pile up wealth should give our civil-service system an exceedingly wide berth. It occasionally happens that legislators and those entrusted with executing the laws are in positions to see the business effect of enforcing certain Federal regulations and, by investing in advance, build up snug fortunes. Such chances, however, are entirely in control

of officials outside of the classified service. The clerk at his desk, the scientist in the field, or the minor official executing orders has little knowledge of what is really passing; it is his place to obey. If he does his duty well and keeps out of the ruts he is reasonably sure of a life position at more than a living salary, which is his reward. The reward may not measure up financially to that of his executive chief, but financial gains are merely relative and bear a more significant meaning when considered from the viewpoint of saving money. A chance to secure a $900 appointment leading to the chiefship of a division paying $3000 a year would be a splendid opportunity for the average young man; but such a chance would be scorned by the man owning a business worth $25,000 a year. So in looking at opportunity its relative meaning must be considered.

The Civil Service Commission says:

> There is not sufficient inducement for the most capable men to enter the examinations, as they can do better by seeking employment in large corporations, trusts, and other institutions, where they can in time command much higher salaries than they can ever hope to secure in the Government service.

This condition, so well put by the Commission, is a serious problem that is engaging the attention of legislators and arises through the national habit of gauging all values by a financial standard.

But there is another side to the story. Gold should never be a tyrant with the public employé. His duty is to the State, and when he begins to commercialize his post it is time to resign and go into business. This, of course, does not mean that an office-holder should be contented with any reward, no matter how meagre; it has reference entirely to persons who take service with the Government expecting to make money out of it. It is right that one should endeavor to secure a goodly income, but income is not the only consideration to be taken into account.

Passing from the merely commercial phase of opportunity in the civil service, which is not conceded a proper standard, Government service offers many inducements for men and women of modest ambition.

SPECIALISM.—This is a day of specialism. It is a rule of business, of agriculture, of professional life, and of government. Our Government has grown so intricate that it is no longer possible for any one officer or employé to be familiar with every part of the great machine. The parts are interdependent and it is necessary that each part should perform its work with the highest degree of efficiency; and, that this may be done, the Commonwealth looks to the specialist for help.

As the Government expands, the expert is more and more in demand, and it is certain that the future will see this demand steadily increase. New bureaus are created at irregular intervals,

and these new branches are now manned almost wholly by specialists. Old methods are gradually giving place to new ones, and it is no longer safe for a chief to rely entirely upon his own judgment in executing the policies entrusted to him. The policies of our most successful bureaus are in the hands of men who have shown their wisdom in surrounding themselves with assistants, high and low, who are experts in their particular work. There are opportunities for a large and varied number of specialists, not only in the administrative places but in professional and minor posts.

GOVERNMENT SYSTEM AND METHODS.—At present there is a demand for modern methods throughout the Government. The old-time systems are passing just as fast as men with ideas are put upon the pay-roll. Here is an opportunity for the system man to show what he can do. The man of original ideas, who can devise plans of handling the public business more expeditiously without too much iconoclasm, is in demand in every office. But he must not be a dreamer; he must show that his theories are practicable and better than those now in use. Whether he be an official or an employé, he must measure up to his claims.

There is at present too little initiative in certain offices, too little originality, too much red-tapism. The men at the head of the administration recognize this condition and want it changed; their

only handicap is the lack of sufficient men of originality to make the changes.

Not a few office-holders show a tendency to do things without accomplishing anything, recording their efforts in voluminous correspondence and lengthy reports of uninteresting details. The practice of making much ado about nothing is frowned upon by the principal executive officers, who are always glad to receive the right kind of suggestions for improving any particular branch of the service. Every employé in every office has a chance to help in this.

Many clerks and officers know of better ways of doing the things within their respective jurisdictions, but lack initiative. Any improvement in system, no matter how trivial, if properly laid before the executive chief, will be welcomed. Persons who can devise improvements or who can demonstrate original ideas of value are almost sure to meet pronounced success. System ideas are needed by the Government, and in their development lie opportunities for those who can supply them.

BUSINESS AND FINANCE.—There is a growing demand for men with corporation and banking experience to take places in the new branches of the Government which give special attention to the country's business interests. Men with broad, sound training find many opportunities, particularly in the various bureaus of the Department of Commerce and Labor.

Owing to the numerous evils that have developed in our business system, it has become necessary for the Government to step in and lay down certain regulations for commercial intercourse. Investigations and litigation have resulted, and the Government now finds it necessary to employ a corps of business and financial experts who have a practical knowledge of corporate methods. Federal regulation has by no means reached a maximum; rather, it has just begun, and the future will no doubt bring about a much more intimate relationship between the Commonwealth and our country's business interests.

"High finance" is bound to receive much more attention than it has so far obtained. The country's business conditions are undergoing a change in which conservatism, founded upon governmental regulation, is likely to be predominant. This means that the corps of business experts will not only have to be considerably augmented, but will be a permanent thing and maintain a high order of efficiency.

The prospects for capable men in this branch of Federal work are bright. The financial rewards are not as promising as the same ability might bring in private undertakings, but there are other compensations such, for instance, as the honor accruing to office-holders who accomplish things and to whom the nation looks for help. This does not mean that pinching economies

must be observed to meet living expenses. On the contrary, the money remuneration is in most cases sufficient to enable one to save considerable against the future.

The openings presented in this line of civil-service work are not alone for men in administrative places. Subordinates are needed to fill the clerical places and the posts of assistants. Good clerks versed in corporate business, preferably young men, will find opportunities in this branch of work that they did not expect to encounter in the civil service. There is no reason why capable young men should not take up this work and make it a career. A knowledge of law is, of course, a prerequisite of success; beyond the point of an inspectorship it may be said that there are few chances for men without a legal education. While it is not necessary, in the subordinate places, to be expert in all the intricacies of the law, a general knowledge of the principles involved should be had. This general knowledge should be reinforced by a thorough familiarity with the statutes and departmental methods. The graduate of a law school, versed in the laws and regulations governing railroad and other interstate concerns, can be a valuable assistant to the Government.

The Civil Service Commission is sometimes called upon to hold examinations to fill places in which a knowledge of commercial, banking, and railroad methods is a requisite. This is a

radical departure from the old method of filling subordinate positions on the basis of scholastic examinations, and is a result of new conditions well illustrating the progressive feature of our Government. It augurs well for our civil service when business places, both high and low, are filled by business men.

THE ENGINEERING PROFESSIONS.—The United States is undertaking an increasing number of engineering enterprises for execution by the civil branch of the service. This means that civil, electrical, mechanical, and marine engineers have a secure standing in the public service. The military and naval arms have, for some time, drawn upon civilian engineers for assistance in executing strictly fighting plans. Recommendations have several times been made to the Congress for the creation of a corps of civilian engineers to rank with corresponding places in the fighting arm now filled by commissioned officers. There is little doubt that these recommendations will be acted upon favorably in the not distant future.

The opportunities for engineers in the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Geological Survey, and the field work of the General Land Office are choice. The work is high grade and pleasant, the professional associations are unusually congenial, and the chances for securing good places in the nation's history are excellent. The engineers of these services are held in high esteem

by the shipping, mining, and agricultural interests. New fields have lately been opened in Alaska and our island possessions which are sure to result in important discoveries and lasting benefits

TECHNICAL CLERKS.—At no time have the opportunities for technical clerks been so numerous as they now are and at no time have clerks, qualified by education and experience to perform technical work, been so relatively few in number. The scientific bureaus make a demand, constantly increasing, for clerks competent to handle intelligently the office details of their work. Much of this work is highly technical in character, requiring some knowledge of the respective branch of science involved. The ordinary clerk, trained to act strictly under orders, is unable, in a large majority of these positions, to perform the work satisfactorily. Comprehension and judgment are required. A college or part college education is needed in addition to a practical knowledge of business customs and thorough familiarity with departmental regulations. A clerk engaged in technical work should be able to follow closely the scientific work of his immediate superiors and to enter into the spirit of the investigations at hand.

A working knowledge of French and German is quite essential to the technical clerk. If he has had three years of Latin, one year of French will be sufficient to give him a reading knowledge of the language. Two years of German are suf-

ficient for that language. If he know his Latin well he will have no trouble in acquiring enough Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and French in two years' study to enable him to handle the scientific literature of those modern languages. More scientific books and papers appear in German than in all other European languages combined, French omitted. It is not necessary to be able to speak and write the languages. Scientific correspondence is usually conducted in one's native tongue. There are few scientists who can speak and write fluently any language other than their own, and yet it is rare to find one who can not read at least three modern languages. To the uninformed a reading knowledge of six modern languages—English, German, French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese—sounds formidable and not worth while in gaining. On the contrary, their acquisition is not a formidable task and it is by all means worth while.

A knowledge of stenography is useful but not always necessary. Familiarity with the typewriter, however, is quite indispensable. It is no longer considered good form to submit pen-written papers for publication. The use of the typewriter is so universal that handwriting must be very legible to be acceptable to the printer; and in this connection it must be said that few persons indeed possess that beautiful accomplishment. It is not unusual for authors—both literary and scientific—to compose their papers

directly upon the typewriter. This plan has so many advantages that they scarcely need explanation, chief among them being legibility. The work of the technical clerk in abstracting and in the compilation of data is usually such that it would be a physical impossibility for him to put it into handwriting without producing an unintelligible scrawl.

There are specialties in the work of the technical clerk as there are in all other civil-service work. For example, there is the specialty in chemistry, in civil engineering, botany, geology, geodesy, meteorology, statistics, zoölogy, entomology, medicine, architecture, ship-building, etc. The clerk desiring to become a technical assistant in any scientific branch of Government work should outline a course of home study upon the particular line that he chooses, in the event a college course is inaccessible. Any scientist will be glad to guide the aspiring clerk in providing a proper curriculum This course of study and reading should not be prolonged to a degree of tedium; but it should be to the point and include the best thought of the profession. He should also keep himself well informed in current literature and world progress, and give particular notice to changes in the regulations regarding the publication or editing of Government papers.

Technical clerkships often lead into the professions, one reason why the supply of clerical assistants so qualified is not greater. It can

readily be seen that a clerk qualified to consult with his chief should naturally aspire to a higher place. In truth, the young men taking up clerical work of a technical nature usually develop into scientists or executive officers. It would, therefore, appear that the opportunities for technical clerks are bound to increase far beyond their present excellent status.

STENOGRAPHY.—Relatively considered there is no branch of civil-service work in which the opportunities excel those offered in the field of shorthand. Of course, stenography is, with the exception of a few positions, a minor grade of work; yet the openings it offers are so numerous and the chances for advancement to very high positions so promising that it is distinctly advisable for a young man to look well into the advantages of mastering this art when seeking the civil service. There are to-day numbers of administrative positions filled by one-time stenographers.

The nature of stenographic positions is such that confidential relations are almost sure to be established between the executive heads of offices and the stenographic corps. Relations of this kind are particularly desirable inasmuch as they offer chances of demonstrating one's capacity, and it is but natural and logical that executives should turn to persons whom they know are capable when filling vacancies in the higher branches of Federal work. The stenographer is

often called upon to work overtime; but, to compensate for this extra work, his future is bright if he has the sense to see it. Private secretaries are invariably stenographers, and it is now quite customary for department and bureau heads to promote their private secretaries to such places as chief clerk, executive officer, assistant secretary, and United States attorney.

A good stenographer is not only expert with the pen, but he has education and judgment. He is far from a mere machine; when he gets into the ruts he is lost. The Government stenographer should have a broad education. He should be a college graduate, if possible; or, if this be out of reach, he should be well read and know something of the things that are taught in college. He should have dignity, tact, ability, and diplomacy to insure advancement.

As in other branches of Federal work, there are specialties for the stenographer, such as court reporting which usually leads into the legal profession, secretarial work which indicates administrative positions as his goal, scientific stenography which often places him in the ranks of natural or applied science, and general reporting which rather points to a professional career outside of the Government. The Civil Service Commission has, for years, advertised the fact that the supply of efficient male stenographers is scarcely equal to the demand; and, notwithstanding a continuous stream of shorthand

eligibles, the call for more grows insistent. This is due largely to the vacancies created by promotion from the stenographic ranks, a condition that speaks well for this class of service.

Stenography is a peculiar occupation in that there are but two degrees of ability: very good, and very bad. A good stenographer is the most valuable assistant that an executive can have, and a bad one opens the way to all kinds of inefficiency. There is no half-way resting-place in this vocation, and those equipped with the art of shorthand should bear this in mind when offering their services to the Government.

EDITORIAL WORK.—The Government office offers good opportunities for persons having the ability to edit and supervise the preparation of publications. Government reports and papers have long been a source of facetious comment and it must be confessed that there has been much cause for this. As a matter of fact, there is an exceedingly small amount of the vast quantity of publications that has merit from a literary viewpoint.

While it is not maintained that the highest grade of literary production must issue from the Government press, it is reasonable to expect some literary merit. Much of the work now put forth is stiff, of clumsy construction, abounds in tautology, and bears the earmarks of strenuous effort in creation. The tendency is toward self-[illegible]ion and the enlargement of small things

to create a favorable opinion. Few persons now in the civil service have the gift of writing lucid, concise, and comprehensive English. It is not relevant to take up the cause of this shortcoming in persons who are otherwise well qualified and who should be able to write a few pages of English without stumbling over words.

One of the principal subjects put out by the Civil Service Commission in its basis examination is the "copying from rough draft." The practice of examining applicants in their ability to unravel such miserable tangles is a more pointed hint on the literary capacity of Government authors than pages of comment. It betrays a condition in Government offices to be found nowhere else. The idea of a presumably competent official sitting at his desk and scribbling off a jumble of confusion is objectionable, to say the least, and appears to be due to haste to get into print. While it is true that few persons have the gift of putting their thoughts on paper without a second writing, there is no excuse for tangled rhetoric and ridiculous composition in which big words of doubtful meaning are freely used.

The indications point to decided improvement in official publications and this improvement must come largely through the censorship of the editorial assistant. This does not mean mere proof-reading and blue-penciling variations from copy; any intelligent clerk can do that with half an hour's practice. It comprises the art of

English composition. Some bureaus now employ censors of correspondence whose duty it is to see that the matter prepared for the chief's signature is in proper form and succinctly stated. The censorship system will be extended and the results are sure to be the best.

TRANSLATING.—Since the acquisition of the Philippines and the strengthening of American influence in the East it has become evident that closer relations with Oriental nations will be the result. Many questions affecting the citizens of this country in their dealings with the Eastern peoples will arise, not to mention deeper problems of politics and diplomacy. The satisfactory settlement of these questions will involve the use of Oriental tongues as well as English. Eastern languages are expansive, and extravagant verbiage is often used to convey the simplest ideas. In our relations with Oriental nations, therefore, we should know something of their languages as well as customs.

There is no better way to understand a people than by talking to them in their native tongue. Few native Americans have even the barest conception of Chinese and Japanese. The field of Oriental tongues is all but untouched, and now is the time to prepare for future necessities. The United States Government will surely call for the services of native Americans familiar with Eastern languages, particularly Japanese, in the near future. Persons familiar with Oriental

tongues will be in demand to fill diplomatic and consular posts and should possess qualifications other than the mere ability to put the words of one language into those of another. They should be so liberally educated that this Government could appoint them to positions requiring diplomatic and executive ability. The Japanese and Chinese translators should be college graduates and have a fair understanding of international law and etiquette, and should be qualified to represent this country with dignity and equity.

There is little doubt that there will also be demand for translators of Oriental languages to fill departmental positions of a more or less clerical character. In such cases the official duties would merely consist of rendering documents into English and *vice versa*, and in some instances involve speaking the language.

Those who are in the field when a call is made usually have greater success than those who enter later. And just now the field of translating Oriental tongues is practically clear.

LIBRARY METHODS.—A knowledge of library science offers good opportunities for high-grade clerks. Few bureaus are without a library adapted to their particular needs. As professional librarians command high salaries, the care of these small libraries devolves upon bright, well informed clerks. Few persons know how to use a library, and a clerk with a specialty in library science is

a valuable member of an office staff having no professional librarian.

A librarian's work consists of a multitude of duties in addition to sitting at a desk and giving out books; they comprise the wide field of bibliography. The librarian of a Government office will keep the staff informed of the latest literature bearing upon their work, prepare reference lists, verify references to authorities, criticise the literary merits of manuscripts submitted for publication, and maintain a complete card index system. The office archives and original records are put into the custody of the librarian, and it is his duty to know without delay just where to lay his hands upon the records. Methods of keeping records and filing documents come within his jurisdiction.

A clerk taking up library methods must have an education back of his ambition. A college degree is not an absolute necessity, but is very near to it. The man or woman of ordinary education cannot hope to make such work a success, for its very nature requires broad learning; and, as libraries are conducted at present, modern ideas must have full swing. The day of the dusty cob-webbed library is gone; this is the day of the used book. The clerk with library science as his specialty should seek a place in an office having no librarian, and so utilize his resources and ingenuity in bringing order out of confusion. If he possess the capacity, his

prospects are bright for a high place in that class of work. Clerks with literary predilection will find library work congenial. The pay for this grade of work varies from $1200 to $1800 a year. The associations are almost entirely with persons of education and refinement.

STATISTICS.—The scientific tabulation and analysis of statistics has come to play an important rôle in the country's affairs. Light has been thrown upon a number of national questions by the statistician, notably immigration and foreign commerce. There are now several large offices whose entire time is devoted to gathering, tabulating, and analyzing statistics; and the demand from industrial, agricultural, and commercial interests is increasing for this kind of information. The collection of data is conducted by clerks, the analyzing is done by experts, and the distribution of the information is in charge of the administrative officers.

The Government statistician must be, above all else, a practical man; he must have an analytical mind and a brain trained to grasp the commercial value of his findings. There are splendid opportunities for men of these qualifications and the future promises better. The pay ranges from $1200 to $3000 a year, according to responsibility and the class of work undertaken.

THE CONSULAR SERVICE.—Recent legislation has put the Consular Service on an excellent footing and this corps now offers fine opportunities

for men ambitious of a career in the American foreign service. As now operated, the Consular Service is probably as near an ideal merit system as may be found. Since re-organization the whole system is on the merit basis. Permission for taking the examination must be obtained from the President. The examination is one that only a college graduate or one possessed of an equivalent amount of learning can hope to pass. Entrance is made in the lower places and promotions made up the line.

The pay of consuls ranges from $2000 to $12,000 a year. This range of pay is not as wide as the incomes derived from private business, but the compensations in the way of permanent office, pleasant duties, and congenial associations promise well for persons desiring a high grade of service. In fact, no other branch of the Federal service, with the exception of the diplomatic corps, offers better inducements in the way of an honorable career than the Consular Service. The freedom from bureaucracy, independence of action, and the opportunity to aid American commercial interests are worthy of careful consideration by any one looking for opportunities in the public service.

The future promises exceedingly well for the Consular Service, and persons entering it may look forward to a pleasant and profitable career.

PATENT INVESTIGATION.—The human mind is so prolific in ideas that the Government is com-

pelled to employ several hundred experts to examine the inventions resulting from this mental activity. Every invention is examined as to its originality before letters patent are issued covering it. Sometimes inventions are stolen and sought to be patented, and sometimes honest duplication takes place; in either case it is the patent expert's business to ascertain whether the claims are just and whether the applicant is entitled to receive a patent.

The range of patent examination covers the whole field of invention, from which it will rightly be surmised that the patent examiners must have a thorough education in the physical and mechanical sciences. Nothing short of a college education will answer the purpose. The work of the patent office is divided into a large number of departments, one or more experts being assigned to each division. Thus, a corps of chemists handle patent medicines, mechanical experts are assigned to the immense field of machinery, others have charge of household specialties, and so on through the interminable list of inventions.

The staff of examiners is divided into five grades and promotions are made up the line. Entrance is at $1500 a year, each grade rising by increments of not less than $300 a year to $2700. The patent expert who is also a lawyer is particularly valuable, as the nature of the patent business involves legal technicalities. Owing to the high requirements and difficult

examinations prescribed, it is almost impossible to secure a sufficient number of eligibles to supply the demand, inasmuch as vacancies, especially in the higher grades, are very numerous. These vacancies are caused by private concerns, especially patent law firms, drawing upon the Patent Office for experts. Patent examiners qualified as attorneys have no trouble in effecting partnerships with legal firms whereby their incomes are increased from two to fivefold. The forming of such connections of course necessitates resignation from the Patent Office.

Within recent years numbers of young men have secured appointment as patent examiners, studied law, and served several years for the purpose of qualifying themselves to command lucrative salaries elsewhere or to form partnerships in law firms. This practice appears to be increasing and the Government faces a problem as a result. So numerous have resignations become that in some years they have numbered fully one third of the whole corps of examiners. This is rough on the Government, but it is clover for the individual. There is only one way that seems likely to put an end to these wholesale resignations and that is to increase all salaries very substantially. Outside competition must be met if the Government hope to retain its best patent examiners.

Looked at from the individual's point of view, the opportunities in this line of work are golden

both from a financial consideration and the aspect of professional association. The work itself is of a kind to prevent mental corrosion, as it is absolutely necessary to keep abreast of progress; there is no chance to grow stiff in the harness.

Clerical Work Involving Law.—The civil service provides a large number of places in which a knowledge of law is extremely valuable. The higher clerical posts under the State Department and in such branches as the bureaus of Corporations, Manufactures, Insular Affairs, Immigration and Naturalization, and American Republics, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the financial bureaus of the Treasury Department, require considerable knowledge of law. These places are usually filled by promotion or transfer of suitable eligibles.

Anomalous as it may seem, particularly in view of the excessive number of graduates in law throughout the country, the clerical corps of the civil service is deficient in legal knowledge. The Government offers many modest opportunities for clerks with legal education, these opportunities taking the direction of the better salaried places — those paying from $1200 to $2000 a year. The demand for clerks specialized in law is considerable and the chances for promotion more favorable than for those not so qualified.

Those aspiring to be administrative assistants

and chief clerks must be graduates of a law school or its equivalent, and be familiar with departmental regulations and practice if they would attain the greatest success. The policy of filling the better-paid places with lawyers is expanding, irrespective of the political aspect of the Administration.

AGRICULTURE.—Experts in agriculture are in demand by the United States Government. The supply of available material is somewhat limited, and the Federal bureaus now find some difficulty in retaining experts owing to the outside demand. Our agricultural interests appear to be finding a new basis, one in which science and business go hand in hand. The chemistry of soils, horticulture, plant diseases, and intensive farming are now receiving close attention. The solution of these problems involves the practical application of science. Mere planting and harvesting are no longer satisfactory to our farmers; they want more, and naturally turn to the Government to supply advice.

The Department of Agriculture has grown from a small affair into one of the most valuable branches of the National Government and imparts its discoveries to the farmers without charge. The agricultural expert may look at his opportunities from two viewpoints: financial, and scientific. As a financial proposition he receives less than is paid for a similar service by private interests. Thus, an expert receiving from $3000

to $4000 annually from the Government would command from $6000 to $10,000 elsewhere. Superintendents of large farms, ranches, or plantations receive from $2000 to $10,000 a year; under the Department of Agriculture parallel ability could scarcely hope to reach over $4000.

The scientific opportunities for the agricultural expert are especially good. There are scores of problems to be solved and men are needed to devote scientific thought to them. Men who hope to make a great success in advancing the country's agricultural interests should examine the Government field before deciding upon a line of action. The Government presents unusual opportunities for research at its experiment stations and investigating bureaus.

There is abundant opportunity for some scientist to gain world-wide and lasting fame in devising a practical means of controlling the various scale diseases of fruit trees, "yellows" of peaches, pear blight, and the boll weevil of the cotton plant which seriously threatens our cotton-growing industry. The demand for fine, perfect fruit is increasingly strong throughout the eastern markets; this would suggest work in developing varieties of fruit suitable for growing in the eastern climate. Insect pests of plant and animal life are sure to receive more attention. Numerous important discoveries have been made by Government investigators and it is safe to say that

the future has in store many more honors in this line of research work.

Owing to facilities for conducting experiments, the Government presents unusual opportunities for soil investigations. We now have little actual knowledge of soils. There is no reason why soil chemistry should not be developed to such an extent as to double the products of a given farm, a problem that is just now upon us owing to the growth of our population with a consequent increased demand for food products. Many thousands of farmers to-day are attempting to raise crops on unsuitable soil. The nation has honors for men who can give good advice in this respect.

When all is said about opportunities in the public service, the ambitious man must bear in mind that preparation and capability are the qualities that count. Lack of these two essentials makes a man ordinary. Suggestion: Seize the first opportunity and drive it with a master's whip.

CHAPTER XI

THE NATION'S PROBLEMS

EVERY nation has its problems to solve; the greater the nation, the more serious the problems. It is the division of opinion as to the best means of settling public questions that brings about the formation of political parties. Public opinion is a mighty power but it is not always a safe guide, as the public acts largely upon impulse. We have in our national history several conspicuous examples of official deference to popular clamor which resulted disastrously to the country. The Embargo Act of 1807, the imbroglio with Mexico in 1846, and the "carpet-bag" régime during the ten years immediately following the close of the Civil War are examples in point that this country will not forget. All were brought about by unreasoning agitation and all could have been avoided.

The United States has profited by past mistakes, but it has by no means reached a point where serious problems are no longer encountered. Trifling questions not infrequently develop into grave, complicated problems. It is well that all

questions should have the people's attention, but they should have special significance to the office-holder.

It is the duty of every person in Government service, whether in a high or a low capacity, to keep informed on the problems of to-morrow as well as those of to-day; not in a sordid spirit that thinks of self first, but in a patriotic sense that puts the nation's interests ahead of the individual's. The public servant should do well all tasks that come to hand, but that is not all; he should see farther than pay day and think beyond the confines of official hours. It is a great privilege to aid in solving the national problems and in obtaining results that mean happiness for succeeding generations; for, however well the public employé may serve the present, his influence must be felt in years to come. It is therefore incumbent upon him to give heed to the signs of the times if he would accomplish the greatest good for the greatest number.

There are to-day several questions, of a more or less important nature, before the nation for settlement. Some of them have attained sufficient growth to be incorporated with the principles of our political parties; others are still embryonic. Whatever their status the public office-holder should be the first to give them serious thought, that he may be prepared to discuss them or undertake their solution intelligently.

The nation looks to the Administration for leadership, and it is the duty of Federal employés to take this place and be ready to assume the work when the call comes.

COLONIAL GOVERNMENT.—First among the questions that now confront the Government is that of colonial administration. The United States had lived within herself for over one hundred years when the grave responsibility of caring for 8,000,000 strange people, many of them savages, was thrust upon her. It is not to the point to discuss the circumstances that brought about this responsibility. Whatever differences of political opinion exist, our insular possessions now look to the central Government for guidance and protection. It is our plain duty to provide the best government possible for these our people. It matters little whether the Constitution extends to "possessions" of this country or whether those possessions shall ever come into full brotherhood so far as our duty is concerned. The people of the islands have a claim upon this country and it is incumbent upon us to see that they advance in the arts of civilization with the parent country and that they prosper in their undertakings.

No colonial government can be successful with a discontented, disheartened, and disloyal people. Sullen unrest is a bad sign; retrogression is worse. On the other hand, a popular approval often becomes hysterical and is not a sure in-

dication of what is best. Colonial government must apply certain broad principles that pertain to the home government, such, for example, as the enjoyment of personal liberty, legal and equity rights, protection against foes, guarantees in property matters, and the freedom of the press. It must be remembered, however, that several different races live under the same administration provided by the central Government and that these races differ in institutions from each other and from us. Laws suited to one race may not meet the requirements of another; to some, liberty may mean license; the elective franchise may be the most valued gift to certain portions of our colonial peoples, while others may have to be ruled with a strong and arbitrary hand. In some cases the social institutions are radically at variance from ours. There is a wide difference in a score of directions, all of which must be given careful attention.

A number of first-class Powers have had hundreds of years of experience in colonial government, notwithstanding which mistakes of policy are sometimes made, resulting in serious industrial and political conditions. The question of colonial government is one of the highest importance to countries like England, France, The Netherlands, Germany, and Italy, whose officers and employés are trained to the work of administration. On the other hand, this is an entirely new undertaking for the United States. The work of this

country in colonial administration has by no means passed the experimental stage, and it is of the utmost importance that the problem be studied in principle rather than on the basis of party platforms.

Writers on economic and political themes wield much influence, but the real shaping of destiny lies distinctly with our office-holders. They have the execution of policies entrusted to them and a wise procedure in this respect means far-reaching prestige. Success or failure depends upon individual effort.

We lack men trained for colonial service and, what is more significant, there seems to be a pretty general impression that special training is not necessary, that any one whom fancy dictates may take responsible colonial posts. The few years that our Government has stood in paternal relations to dependencies have demonstrated the necessity for men with special skill in solving the intricacies that arise. Our short experience would seem to indicate that persons anticipating colonial assignment should have a university training and, in addition, be well informed in colonial and international law, comparative religions, history—especially colonial, ethnology, languages, sanitation and health procedures, educational methods, and the colonial systems of England, France, Germany, The Netherlands, and Italy. There is no reason why persons so qualified should not meet a high

degree of success in handling the problems of colonial government.

ORIENTAL POLITICS.—Closely allied with colonial government is the new and equally experimental question of Oriental relations. It is plain that we do not understand the Eastern peoples well enough. Nations that have withstood the assaults of centuries are founded upon certain principles worthy of any race of men. Because the Eastern peoples see the world through eyes other than our own, it is no indication that either they or we shall win in the struggle for the survival of the fittest.

There is a destiny for this country in the Far East; it may be geographical, political, commercial, or philanthropic. Three great countries bound the Pacific Ocean—America, Japan, and China. Just what part each of these three countries shall play in dominating this vast realm remains for the future to tell. All nations have a right to extend their commercial influence; but too much aggression creates jealousies and trouble. The nations of the world have their eyes on the East, and it ill becomes this country to live within itself when the call comes for friendly intercourse of mutual advantage. The flag is planted in the East; just how far the Monroe Doctrine shall follow the flag remains to be seen.

The whole Eastern question is one for the near future to adjust and concerns no one more

than the Government attaché. Whether the Federal servant reside at Washington or be detailed to Manila, it is his unquestionable duty to take a quiet, rational, conservative interest in this branch of world politics.

ECONOMICS.—Our country seems to be on the threshold of a new era in economics. Business interests have attained such proportions that commercial enterprises no longer can be said to be strictly private; they have become concerns in which the public has easements. Our corporate establishments have reached a gigantic size and their doings now concern every citizen.

Commercial development has proceeded by immense, rapid strides; but, as with the swiftly flowing river which cuts a channel for its waters to flow more deeply and slowly, it is possible that the widespread spirit of speculation will subside for one of investment. This does not refer to our periodic spasms of industrial and financial stringency, but to their fundamental causes which only years can adjust. Whether the apprehension generally felt is seeming or real remains to be determined. At any rate, much agitation has already been launched looking toward corporate regulation and public ownership of quasi-public institutions, such as common carriers doing interstate business. Public ownership is not new to the world; to a limited extent it is now in successful operation in several first-class countries. Whether the operation of rail-

roads, express lines, and telegraph systems can be carried on by our Government successfully, or whether their operation would create deficits, as is now the case in the Post Office Department, is a problem for economists to study.

The tendency to inject these questions into the precepts of political parties is already apparent. Perhaps the movement will abort as suddenly as it arose; mayhap it will be carried to the polls and prevail. The interest that the Government now takes in regulating interstate commerce is a sign of the future. It is the merest conjecture to predict the outcome.

Considered in the abstract, it is certain that a readjustment is now under way. Our infant country has become a giant and it must take a giant's place in world progress. It is incumbent upon the progressive man to keep informed on the nation's economical trend.

SUFFRAGE.—Americans have long considered the elective franchise as the foundation of a democratic Government. Lately a number of conditions have arisen that seem to shake their confidence in this institution when applied indiscriminately to all citizens. The enactment of the Fifteenth Amendment raised the first doubt; putting the franchise into the hands of illiterate aliens increased the doubt; and now we have come face to face with the question as a result of the acquisition of insular territory.

There is danger in unlimited suffrage, there

may be as much danger in limiting it; the former tends to a low order of government, the latter toward monarchy. Can this country restrict suffrage and comply with the spirit of the Constitution? Does the Constitution intend that the ballot shall be placed in the hands of the illiterate and of persons who, either by birth or by training, have no understanding of our institutions? These are pertinent questions and need special thought from public servants.

PUBLIC HEALTH.—Our country has grown so fast commercially and socially, and our people have been so intent on developing the nation's resources, that the public health has been relegated largely to the jurisdiction of municipalities. Within recent years thought has undergone a change.

It has been demonstrated that the national authorities can control epidemic diseases by instituting rigid systems of quarantine and sanitation. The great epidemic diseases—bubonic plague, cholera, yellow fever, and smallpox—are no longer terrors for the nation. The new watchword is prophylaxis. To this end the Federal Government has taken charge and instituted vigorous measures for the preservation of the public health, both as humanitarian and commercial measures. The medical inspection of immigrants, a system of reporting to the Washington Government cases of quarantinable disease in foreign ports, and the investigation of epidemics

have proved so practicable that the people now look to the central Government for protection.

The demand for Federal supervision has become so strong that it has resulted in the recent passage of pure food and drug laws. The public-health work now performed by the United States is, above all, practical and has borne splendid results. Yet notwithstanding the advances that have been made there remains such an immense amount undone that it is safe to say that this branch of Federal activity is in its infancy. The great problems of tuberculosis, cancer, leprosy, and typhoid fever remain to be solved. These diseases are with us and carry off scores of thousands of victims to untimely death. Tuberculosis alone is responsible for at least one seventh of the deaths of persons between ten and fifty years old—a period of life that is particularly valuable to the nation; little has been done by the Government looking to the control of this ravaging "white plague." Sanitation may control typhoid, but the question as to how far this may be carried is still open. Leprosy is a serious menace in some of our insular possessions and the loathsome affliction exists in scattered form in many parts of the United States.

The problem of securing pure milk awaits solution. The nation is growing rapidly in population, particularly in city life; and, as many infectious diseases are known to be transmitted through the medium of milk, it is important

that our cities be supplied with clean, wholesome milk. It is well known that thousands of infants in American cities die yearly as a direct result of being fed impure milk; yet in most of our large cities and towns the general milk supply is shamelessly impure. The milk problem is, in a measure, a local proposition, but the saving of babies and children is by all means a question of vital importance to the nation.

The future work of the public sanitarian will not only lie in the control of epidemics but will be directed as well to research. The solution of great problems in medicine generally is reached through simple observations. The discovery of vaccination and the transmission of yellow fever by the mosquito are two cases in point. Sometimes such discoveries come by accident, but the world has now reached a point where it is not satisfied with accident; it demands scientific research. Few physicians have the time to devote to experimental research—work that requires time and money in its prosecution; it therefore devolves upon private philanthropies or public institutions to conduct original investigations. The Government has already begun, in a small way, medical research.

Many foreign Governments maintain departments of public health and all of our States operate health boards as a part of their establishment. Some agitation has been initiated looking to the establishment of a Federal department of health

whose head shall be a Cabinet officer. Whether the time is ripe for this is a question. Whatever may be the final outcome, it is certain that the public demands sanitary supervision in a much wider sense than is now practised by the central Government.

AGRICULTURE AND FORESTRY.—The farming interests of this country own thousands of square miles of fine land, but the supply in the hands of the Government, once so liberal in land gifts, is all but exhausted. The land now owned by the Government consists principally of waste tracts, and forest and Indian reservations. The immense tracts available for individual ownership a few years ago are now being cut up into smaller lots and parcelled out to a large number of persons. The price of agricultural land continues to increase owing to the demand for farms. Tracts that a few years ago were considered waste are now sought, and the Government is making efforts to reclaim the desert by irrigation and the swamp by drainage. Timber grants, once easily secured in large size, are now curtailed, much of the timber lands owned by the Government being set aside for reservations and parks.

Two pregnant signs are indicated by these conditions: intensive farming, and forest conservation. The agricultural colleges of the country are doing much in teaching intensive farming, but it remains for the Government to solve the

great problem of agriculture for future generations. The people of our country, prodigal of resources, know but little of intensive farming and have slight knowledge of the science of forestry. The abandoned farms of the East must be reclaimed, the denuded forests must be made to grow new timber. We have much to learn in this respect, as in others, from our European friends. Every inch of ground must be made to bring forth in the thickly populated countries of the Old World, and we are fast coming to that point. Our rapidly increasing population demands food and shelter and this demand cannot but increase with the coming years. It would seem that forestry in particular requires immediate attention; it now has an excellent beginning and under continued good direction of the Government it will return many-fold results.

The day of liberal land grants, timber rights, and mining concessions is past in this country. A wonderful change in industrial and agricultural conditions has taken place in the past third of a century—a period short in the life of a great nation. If the signs of the times count for anything, there will be a conservation of the nation's resources. The question is, How shall this best be done? The private citizen has little time to devote to an answer. He looks to the public servant whose duty it is to study the problems concerning the nation's welfare.

CHAPTER XII

GOVERNMENT SERVICE AS A CAREER

THE adoption of a career is a matter of utmost importance to every young man. The youth looks eagerly forward to the time when he is master of a vocation; the nation takes an interest in him as one who shall add to the common wealth. The ambition to take part in the strife is a commendable one; it represents manhood and that something in our nature which is commonly termed "doing things."

Sometimes we wonder where everybody will find employment. Our shops are making journeymen out of their army of apprentices, the commercial colleges send out thousands trained in the theory of business, and the universities pour forth other thousands fitted for professional careers. But we need them all—the mechanic, the tradesman, the professional man, and the farmer. Our country is a lusty rich giant; and so long as the nation multiplies in number and increases in thrift that long will every man find his level of usefulness. Families must be provided for and that means labor—physical or mental labor means a career.

Men could not all choose the same occupation, though conditions demanded it, for we are differently constituted. Whatever occupation a man takes up as his life-work it is his duty to be a master of it. However humble, however high, the master is the one who reaps the best in his field of action. And to become a master in any career it is necessary to have a love for the work.

The European system of training the son to the father's trade is all right for Europe. We may come to that some day; but at present the spirit of our nation teaches independence of thought and of action. American young men are not taught to revere their father's calling; they are taught to think for themselves and to work out their own destinies. The right kind of fathers and mothers are pretty much the same the world over, but the American father in particular is hardly satisfied unless his son attains a higher success than himself. If this success lie in the same work, it is well; if the sons adopt a different career and build successfully, it is a matter for congratulation. Indeed, there is a growing disposition in our democratic land to encourage sons to eschew the career of the father.

It is common to find as many occupations in an American family as there are sons. The business man, for example, advises his sons to take up professional life, the mechanic wants his

boys to be business men and make money, the farmer would like his sons to become physicians or lawyers or anything but farmers, the lawyer counsels his sons to become masters of the engineering professions, and so on through the long list of occupations. Yet there is one field of activity, embracing hundreds of thousands, broad in scope, high in ideals, and honorable in duties, that is seldom thought of as presenting opportunities for a career. Who ever heard of a father counselling his son to adopt Government service as a career? Sometimes the sordid attraction of politics appeals to the family's head; but he looks at the Government through the eyes of the gamester, and when it comes to the question of adopting public service as a career the idea becomes a remote one. It is well enough to play at politics or to spend a few years in Federal employ, thinks he; but, outside the officers of the army and navy, no branch of the Federal service occupies his serious attention as presenting opportunities for a son's career.

As a matter of fact, the United States civil service does offer splendid chances for careers. Compared with the careers open to the average young man in other fields of endeavor, the Government offers more in the amenities that make up life than may be found elsewhere—not money reward, which, it is repeated, is not a proper gauge of successful life, but in usefulness, honor, and good living. It is a noble ambition to serve

the State and a choice privilege to help execute the policies of a great political party.

Our civil service to-day offers to young men a wide field of opportunity where their individual tastes may be developed and where they may take up congenial work and develop it according to their ambition. They are assured permanent tenure, which is more than is offered in private life. Whatever may be said for or against life tenure of office, the uneasiness attendant upon uncertain tenure of position is removed and with it one of the most unpleasant features of the average man's life. It is not comforting to know that your income and hopes depend upon the favor of one man, which is the case with employment in private life.

Not only is tenure of office and income secure under the Government during good behavior, but the services performed are surrounded with a dignity not seen in private life. The Government employé has the added advantages of earning a comfortable living, congenial work, short hours, long vacation, ample provision against sickness, a chance to educate himself and his family and, most important of all, time to live. The worries and haste to succeed, common in commercial life, are entirely absent.

The struggle for success is strenuous. Business, which is almost synonymous with American life, has altogether too conspicuous a place in our national existence; it has come to be a god

with us. There are thousands of young men in our factories and offices struggling along on less than a living wage, hoping against hope, who are fitted for better things. They have missed their calling. Of course some are peculiarly suited to business life or the mechanical trades; these should adopt such vocations. There is no good reason, however, why young men should not look to the Government as offering careers, instead of to the ever swelling tide of commercialism where the competition is already keen and growing keener every year.

The first thing to do, for those who contemplate Government service as a career, is to look over the field and get a general idea of the ramifications of our Government. Publications dealing with the principles of our Government, its organization, administration, and methods of conducting its affairs should be studied—not academically, but with a view of gaining a practical grasp of the field. The independence and interdependence of the three great branches—legislative, executive, and judicial,—the extent of each branch, its organization, its duties, division of work, relation to the country at large, and the particular kind of work performed. Such general information can be gained before entering the public service. After having secured a grasp on the situation, the most important thing to consider is that of adopting congenial work.

CONGENIAL WORK.—Success in Government

work cannot be anticipated if one's duties prove disagreeable any more than it can in private life. While an applicant may pass an examination with a remarkably high rating, it is manifestly impossible for appointing officers to judge his special ability for work. It sometimes happens that a brilliantly educated person displays wonderful lack of application when it comes to actual work. This may be due to his own laziness, or it may be due to the nature of the work assigned him upon appointment, which may be wholly distasteful. For example, a young active man who has been used to confidential relations with his employers would not be satisfied with the position of files clerk where his duties consist of filing correspondence or indexing letter-books day after day. Such a change would be extremely disagreeable and disappointing, not to say discouraging. It is such a change, coming at a time of life when ambition is at its height, that wrecks the career of men and causes them to become morose, despondent, and despairing, gradually giving up one hope after another until they have degenerated into the type of clerk sneered at by the newspapers.

One must like his work if he would expect success. While occasional unpleasant duties are bound to arise in any occupation, it is important, in adopting public service as a career, to select some branch where the work is the most interesting and the best suited to individual taste. The

young man whose likes run to engineering should get into one of the engineering corps under the civil service, the one with a taste for business should enter the administrative offices, the lawyer should seek appointment where his duties will be of a legal nature, the skilled mechanic should take up duties for which he is best suited, and so on down the list of specialties. It is necessary to call attention to this, for there are many now in the Federal service who occupy places the duties of which are distasteful and entirely unsuited for the sole reason that the monetary inducements appear better.

It is a mistake for a person desiring to make Government service his life-work to accept uncongenial work for the purpose of securing a larger salary. The practice puts him at odds with the service; he soon comes to look at his work through the eyes of the tradesman and deprecates all effort that cannot be counted in dollars and cents. This does not mean that one should not seek to improve his financial status; but his efforts to reach the highest salaried positions should be confined to his chosen field and he should never engage in a struggle for salary to the detriment of his life-work. When a man commercializes his post it is time for him to resign and take up business pursuits.

Having selected a line of work that promises to be interesting and congenial, every effort should be made to excel and to write a name in

good results. The work chosen should have a future. To work to no purpose is to become a machine. When there is a prospect of rising a powerful incentive to good work is always present. Sometimes a line of work may appear to the unobserving to have no future, whereas the man of keen perceptions may see wonderful possibilities for development. The fact that a branch of the Federal service is small is no indication of a barren future; the Department of Agriculture is a conspicuous example of expansion. An enthusiastic and thoroughly prepared worker may sometimes develop results that take the country by storm.

Need of Patriotic Service.—The emoluments of many posts under the civil service are insufficient to prove attractive to the majority of those best equipped to fill them. This is particularly true of the higher administrative and scientific positions. The Government at present needs men of broad ideas and liberal education possessed of a private income sufficiently large to enable them to live independently of their salary, who are willing to devote their time to the development of Government work. There are some men of this kind now in the Federal service, but their number is too small. Sons of rich men, seeking careers, have splendid chances for developing great usefulness in official life.

There is a large number of well-to-do Americans

who hold aloof from politics and governmental office owing to a reluctance in taking time from their private pursuits. This number includes financiers, lawyers, men of extensive landed and commercial interests, scientists, and economists. Many of these are men of unfeigned public spirit, but private practicability. The lack of men of this type in public office is due perhaps to the conditions of present American life; we are over-energetic and over-anxious to accumulate property. There is every reason, however, to believe that the future will see more rich men in our Federal offices.

INDIVIDUALISM.—The civil service offers little to the employé in the way of individualism. There is so much interdependence that the individual is largely lost—much more so than in commercial occupations. The individual sphere of influence is usually confined within narrow limits. In some offices there is practically no opportunity to show what a man can do; his duties are laid out for him to the minutest detail and he is expected to carry them out to the letter; he can exercise no discretion, and he is the merest cog in the wheel.

Lack of individualism is a distinct drawback in many of the large offices, as it tends to smother ambition, especially the ambition that demands hurried realization. The details of the work laid out in those large offices, however, must be performed with unfailing accuracy. It can be

well understood that where there are a thousand clerks engaged upon one kind of work it is impossible for the administrative head to single out any one of them as being more proficient than the others; he must depend upon the efficiency record as kept by the foremen and section chiefs, a system that is not conducive to individualism.

There is considerable opportunity to demonstrate personal capacity in the smaller offices, as in such offices the executive head is brought into closer touch with his subordinates, a condition favorable for observing individuals and their work.

On the whole, there is more individualism in scientific work than elsewhere. The nature of scientific investigation calls for personal capacity and the attention of superiors, and the public is drawn to the man who does the work in a much more direct manner than is the case in clerical or mechanical positions.

The lower the grade of work performed the less individualism exists, and *vice versa.* The senior clerkships, chiefships, foremanships, and similar grades offer some opportunities for individual exploitation. Specialists have ample chances to build up personal reputation. In fact, so secure a place does the specialist occupy in the Government that attention is directed to his work in much greater measure than to that of the average man.

PROGRESSIVENESS.—Young men adopting Government service as a career should keep up with the day's thought. It matters not whether the nation's thoughts directly concern the public work or not, the bright man will keep himself informed on what the country is doing. He will take a real live interest in the economic, industrial, and political conditions of this country; its people, their trials and hopes, their struggles and their successes, will appeal to him; advances in invention, education, and commerce will receive a share of his attention. He must keep in touch with progress, else he will become a clod and lose ambition; and the moment ambition is lost, his career is gone. There can be no career without a dogged, persistent purpose to make every day his own.

The Government is the mill in which history is made. Events are transpiring that concern, not our country only, but the world. It is a privilege to be placed where a good view can be had of the nation's progress. The successful office-holder will take a special interest in the deliberations of the Congress, the expansion of our territory, the education of our island peoples, the unification of national thought, and our growth in the great family of nations. He will be a subscriber to half a dozen of the leading magazines devoted to as many different phases of national and world thought, and will have a library of standard literature supplemented by works bearing upon his specialty.

The aspirant for a career under the Government will not only take a live interest in the events of the country at large, but he will look well to the work and policies of his department and the particular office in which he is occupied. One of the most important things for him to know and one of the first to learn is Government practice and procedure. Examples are not wanting where officials well up show a remarkable, not to say amazing, ignorance of the simplest forms of procedure. This cannot lead to success. The man who expects to evolve a successful career under the civil service must know what he is about and must act intelligently, not blindly and machinelike. The machine-acting employé is a pitiable creature; he invites criticism and caustic remarks.

As in the case of business, a hobby should be adopted by every office-holder; no one has a better chance to ride a hobby than he, for he has the time to devote to it. A good hobby acts as a lubricant and serves to keep the individual bright. There are scores of harmless hobbies, such as various forms of collecting, branches of sport, the pursuit of educational subjects, authorship, music, art, travel, and philanthropy. Anything that will contribute toward keeping one's thoughts clear and the spirit young is of value.

Resting on the oars has blighted and damned more careers in the Government service than any other one cause. Incompetency may be corrected,

ignorance overcome, and judgment improved by earnest attention; but laziness is a weight that drags down progress with fatal certainty. The world has no use for the tired man; the business man hates him, society shuns him, and his fellows regard him with scorn. The lazy man, the one who secures a position under the Government to escape work, not many years ago brought obloquy upon the "Government clerk" by boasting of his "snap." It is no longer fashionable to be idle in Government offices, thanks to strenuous executive officers; it is hoped that this vigorous policy will continue till all the drones are driven out of the departments. The influence of lazy employés is evil in the extreme, and all men who hope to enjoy an honorable and successful career in the United States civil service are cautioned to avoid this class of persons.

Loyalty.—"Be loyal" is a piece of advice worth following. A goodly number of public employés entertain an unreasonable dislike for superiors to the same extent that prevails in private employment. A certain class of persons feel it their duty to deride all effort on the part of those in authority. Why they do this is a question in psychology. A spirit of discontent and disloyalty certainly cannot produce good results.

Public criticism of superiors is not tolerated and is a cause for summary dismissal. This is the nearest approach to *lèse-majesté* in this country.

Honest discussion of men and methods is proper, so long as the discussion does not smack of disloyalty. There is no doubt that caustic criticism of Government officials is sometimes well merited, but it ill becomes the civil-service employé to indulge in this practice notwithstanding his personal feelings. He should constantly bear in mind that he is working for the United States and not for an individual; also, that he himself is quite as likely to make mistakes as his superior.

The successful and progressive employé will make it a point to please his executive superior. He may not like his chief's way and that way may not be the best one; but somebody must be in charge and be responsible for things. Authority must proceed from a recognized head, and it is the duty of subordinates to obey cheerfully and without complaint, either openly or sullenly, all official orders. Nothing can be accomplished by cross-purpose efforts; such practice weakens everybody concerned. The wishes of a superior should be studied and carried out with intelligence. Personal likes or dislikes must not enter into the question of loyalty if a successful career be looked forward to in the civil service. Only on the rarest occasions is it wise to oppose superiors and then only when specific delinquencies harmful to the public interests can be sustained against him. When such rare occasions do arise, charges should be preferred and the fight conducted with vigor.

Closely allied with loyalty is that of team work.

Not infrequently the Federal employé seeks to build up his career by unfair methods. An example in point is that of declining to assist associates in ways that will accrue to their benefit when no direct advantage is gained by himself. Almost every corps contains one or more men of this type, men who are able and willing to go to any inconvenience if their effort will produce some good for self, but who sedulously avoid helping an associate. A good politician knows the value of a strong "machine" and no one can build a machine without team work. Team work produces results and results count. While it is not necessary to be over-officious, it is good politics to help where help is needed and welcomed; it is the building of influence, it creates friends, and it makes for public and personal success.

Appreciation.—"You can catch more flies with molasses than with vinegar," which is merely saying that everybody likes to be commended. When a man has made a mistake it is not necessary to scold him and, in most cases, not even to remind him of it. A kind word has put many a man on his feet. A word of praise for work well done is like the grasp of an honest hand—it carries life and makes the recipient anxious to please. The employé struggling through his routine leaves his desk with a lighter heart when his chief comes to him with a "Well done," or "That 's fine." The succeeding days will see light and hope in that man's every act,

and his work will show the fruit of the good seed. Nothing will help an official, bearing a burden of responsibility, to better advantage than a few words from an appreciative citizen who has no axe to grind. The citizen can do a great deal of direct good by writing an occasional letter to the official commending his efforts and wishing him godspeed. There is not an office-holder in our land who does not value honest words of encouragement—not flattery, but heartfelt and heart-spoken good wishes. It is all right to speak well of a man after he is dead; it is far more to the point to tell him while he is yet alive.

Another good thing to remember and religiously practise is gratitude. Never forget a favor or a courtesy; seek to repay it in double measure. There is no better investment for the professional office-holder than courtesy and cheerful, not servile, performance of duty. The disgruntled man rarely rises high, for officials do not want an associate of this type.

Every branch of the service has its flotsam and jetsam. The employé who would make his career under the Government a success will carefully avoid the hulks and driftwood and will seek as associates, both in and out of office, successful and progressive persons. This little point about associates is not thoroughly understood. It is a fact that the man struggling along will be so influenced by association with successful men and will become so infected with the spirit of success

that failure will be next to impossible. Success, like laughter, is contagious.

Silence about official transactions is also enjoined upon the ambitious public servant. Often work is planned, investigations outlined, or decisions rendered in the Federal office that mean a great deal to the country and the effect of premature announcement would be disastrous. The responsibilities of giving information to the newspapers or otherwise divulging official acts rightly rests with the men at the head of the service, not with subordinates. "Leaks" create confusion and often scandal, both of which are detrimental to any branch of the service. The public interests are sometimes best conserved by close secrecy. The employé who cannot keep a secret is not a fit person to entrust with Federal affairs. Betrayal of trust is, in most cases, unintentional, due to indiscretion; but the effect is quite the same. Unauthorized and garbled accounts of Federal proceedings are worse than disobedience; they express disloyalty to the Government. A wagging tongue sends its owner into private life.

On Becoming Known.—"Idle money does n't grow," nor do idle brains. It is easier under the Government to become stale than perhaps in any other career. The Federal servant, whether occupying a high or a low position, must hold up his end; otherwise he fails. Hermits, misers, and eccentrics may keep themselves in seclusion

in private life, but the public official must be known to the public and the public employé must be known to the official. The nature of public work demands this, and practically all opportunities for advancement in the civil service depend upon it. Those adopting Federal service as a career should recognize the condition and profit accordingly.

How shall a man become known? Talents are worthless unless people know about them. Self-advertising, to put it bluntly, is the key. The practice of advertising one's self is in no manner objectionable, provided it be done in legitimate channels. The world is not apt to think better of a man than he thinks of himself. Self-advertisement, however, must be carried on with dignity and discretion, and the man using it must be ready at all times to make good his claims. Otherwise he becomes boastful, conceited, and empty-pated and his constituency will lose confidence in him and set him down as unworthy of trust. People are ever ready to help the man who can prove his mettle.

The Government employé or official who would rise in the civil service must possess considerable affability. He must have the traits of sociability and all the niceties that make up polite society without carrying them to an extreme. The higher Government positions invariably carry the qualifications of sociability. One who can make himself agreeable with his fellows both

during official hours and outside makes friends, and if there be one thing that helps advertise a man it is his friends—but not the friends who always want something. The professional office-holder should be a member of one or two good clubs; the acquaintances made there and the prestige that club membership affords are worth much more than the annual dues. His face becomes familiar to influential men who otherwise might never hear of him. This principle of club life is well recognized in the commercial world and the sooner it is recognized by the ambitious young man desiring to make Government service his career, the sooner will he get a wide acquaintance of men that will be worth a great deal to him. He needs not only to make friends, but to place a proper value on his friends and never impose upon any one or take a mean advantage.

Beginning Low.—Our civil-service system provides no plan of uniform promotions and there is no regulation requiring appointees to enter at the minimum salaries and work up through the various grades to the higher places. It is pretty well recognized by observant persons, both in and out of the public service, that such a system would be distinctly advantageous, and to this end many offices encourage appointees to enter at minimum salaries. Inasmuch as this plan does not obtain everywhere, it is not necessary for appointees to enter at the lowest pay of a grade in the hope of

gradually rising. Indeed, for the man equipped with a specialty it is advisable to get as large an entering salary as possible, as the law specifically estops him from securing a transfer to another department until he shall have served three years in the department from which he seeks transfer.

The civil-service systems of some first-class Powers provide places for understudies, who shall ultimately fill the higher positions. Our system provides no scheme of this kind. Persons entering our civil service must be well prepared to pass the examinations, and after securing appointment they must keep their eyes and ears open for opportunities to rise. That the future will bring changes in the methods of handling promotions there is little doubt. It is possible that an educational course for understudies may develop with time.

The low-placed man's hope for rising lies principally in bringing himself to the attention of the higher officials. It is not enough that he enter low and devote himself closely to business. Such a course will carry one to a certain point by the rule of seniorage, which is well recognized in the departments, particularly in regard to clerical places; but it is very improbable that his will ever be a great success. He must prove his worth to persons who are in position to command his services. This principle is the same in the Government as in commercial and professional life.

PRECEDENT.—Precedent is a god in Govern-

ment. Let no one forget that. The iconoclast is decidedly out of place in every branch of the Government, whether civil or military. Few new appointees realize this, but a short time in the departments serves to impress upon them the fact that the Government has ways of doing things that must take precedence over their own. If it were not for precedent our Government would be a mass of confusion; every official and employé would have his own way of fulfilling his duties, with the result that nothing would be done. Lawyers readily understand and appreciate the value of precedent, and as the higher executive posts are quite generally filled by lawyers precedent is a fixture. Every act must have its authority.

Freshmen, particularly from commercial offices, are sometimes inclined to ignore technicalities, which they term "red tape" and treat as of little consequence, substituting the short-cut methods of the business office. Persistence in this course usually ends in loss of position. Technicalities are the safety appliances of our ponderous Government machine, and ignoring them often results in great loss and confusion. The safest way for the beginner is to observe all technicalities, no matter how seemingly trivial.

Scarcely less of a god is that of rank, which, however, is not as rigid and unyielding under the civil service as in the military arm. Rank is a recognized condition throughout the Govern-

ments of the world, no matter how great or how small. The State Department ranks all other departments; the Army ranks the Navy; the assistant secretary of a department ranks the head of a bureau though the latter receive greater financial compensation; the chief of a division ranks the expert under his direction though the expert receive double the chief's pay; the clerk ranks the messenger, the messenger ranks the laborer. Good order demands that members of a rank give way to members of a higher grade and that subordinates give precedence to their superiors. The act of showing preference for members of a higher rank creates a good impression. A close observance of rank in a respectful manner redounds to the benefit of the ambitious office-holder; it marks him as versed in the practice that makes for good government.

While the careful employé will closely follow prescribed methods, in doing so he will guard against becoming a brainless automaton. Precedents are the things upon which law and order rest and their proper observance is mandatory, but with changing conditions new precedents become necessary and it is here that originality is brought into play. In certain branches of Federal work it is a serious step to establish a precedent, for there is always the possibility that advantage will be taken of it by the unscrupulous or unthinking. Conservatism is therefore necessary.

Military and naval ideas of rank and discipline are often extremely distasteful to civilian employés who, lacking the training, rarely grasp the spirit of military discipline. Instances are not lacking, on the other hand, where military and naval officers entertain a contemptuous regard for civilian employés and do not hesitate to show it. It is almost unnecessary to say that such conditions are exceptional and individual and are not countenanced by the service. Notwithstanding, they create jealousies and ill feeling, and are a factor to be taken into account when adopting Government service as a career.

THRIFT AMONG FEDERAL EMPLOYÉS.—There is less thrift among Government employés than perhaps among any other class of citizens with corresponding incomes. Very few department employés own a home and few save anything from their salaries no matter how large or how small. A great deal of complaint is heard from Federal employés on account of an inability to accumulate a competence. Debt is common; not the debt of a business man, but that of hand-to-mouth living. A Government employé in receipt of $1200 a year has nothing at the end of the year; it is the same with those receiving $2000 or $3000, or even more. It is not a question of the size of the salary; the result is the same. While employés here and there will be found who save something from their pay, they are the exceptions and, compared with the total

number of office-holders, form a small minority.

Spending is a habit with the public employé. In the city of Washington, where over 25,000 Government employés reside, loan sharks do a thriving business. So greedy and annoying have these collateral vultures grown that it has become necessary to adopt stern measures against them. Complaints from creditors have been so numerous that department officials have found it necessary to issue circulars stating that the Government is not in the collecting business. In actual practice no official cognizance is taken of employés' debts, except when it is evident that some dishonesty exists; in that event the delinquency is regarded as conduct unbecoming a gentleman and the employé is treated accordingly—sometimes merely warned, sometimes dropped from the Federal payroll.

Several causes operate to bring about and maintain habits of thriftlessness among Government employés. The prospect of a life position, for one thing, tends to make incumbents careless in money matters. The temptation to spend against the assurance of a steady income becomes irresistible to many and the result is disastrous to savings accounts. Another important cause is that persons adopting Federal work as a life career are not primarily of commercial bent.

Owing to thriftless habits of office-holders, the question of providing pensions or insurance is now being seriously agitated, and there is little

doubt that the Congress will be asked to enact some kind of legislation looking to the relief of indigent employés now burdening some offices. Thousands of office-holders have spent over twenty-five years in public work, during which time they have received a steady income, on the whole averaging higher than is given for similar service in commercial life. A goodly proportion of these aged incumbents have not saved a cent during those years of steady income and they find themselves, at the end of their life's work, no farther advanced financially than when they began. It must not be understood that these employés have led lives of intemperance and squandered their income in drink or at the gaming table. It is quite the reverse. They are, as a rule, strictly sober, gentlemanly, and respected; their poverty is a result of environment.

In no class of occupation are the possibilities for saving better than in Government service. Every office-holder can and should live modestly within his income. He can buy a home and systematically save money. The opportunities for investing savings are not the same as those coming to the commercial worker, yet the chances for placing money where it will grow are ample. The increasing value of land in this country offers an inviting field for savings; sound stocks and bonds netting four to six per cent. are always to be bought; new industries are springing up, calling for subscriptions to the capital stock; savings

banks all over the country pay from three to four per cent. on deposits; home-buying is always a good investment.

The young man adopting public service as a career should make it an inflexible rule to lay by not less than twenty-five per cent. of his salary every pay day. This should be fastened upon himself on receipt of the first month's salary and should never be broken. It is easy to let one month go by in the hope of saving a double amount the next month; the next month sees an unexpected demand for money and the double amount is not put aside. The only way to save money is to make the rule absolute, even to the extent of great inconvenience; in other words, systematic saving. This cannot be impressed too strongly upon young appointees. Systematic saving induces principles of thrift which are felt in everything that a man does. The saving man remains young and vigorous, not only in his private life but in his public career. His whole life becomes systematic and he is kept away from the pitfalls of ease and luxury that are so disastrous.

Commercialism is not to be commended to office-holders; men so inclined should go into business and not take up public service. But failure to save is to be condemned. Academic advice on saving money is, in a degree, useless; but it sometimes spurs young manhood to effort and results in good.

Health of Office-holders.—Judging from

the number of old persons in the departments one might suppose that the health of the public employé is unusually good and that this class of the world's workers live to greater ages than those in other pursuits. Statistics on this point are lacking; but observation would seem to indicate that the health of public employés does not differ much if any from that of others in similar grades of work. Perhaps on the whole it is somewhat better, owing to the amount of leisure gained by reason of short hours and long vacations. Moderation is general in the life of the office-holder, and moderation is well known to be conducive to health and long life. If this count for much, the Government employé is especially favored. Yet statistics are unavailable, and this is a matter of conjecture.

PLANNING A CAREER. — The young man taking up Federal service as a career should plan for years ahead. He should fix upon some goal and bend all his energies to attain that object. The temptation to go out of one's course for something better is a peculiarly strong one in the service of the United States. Positions and conditions in some other office or branch of the service may appear so much better that it is next to impossible for the young official to withstand an attempt to lay hold upon something else. Fixity of purpose should be a rigid rule of the man aspiring to a successful public career. Ambition should be anchored to a certain high post, and the attain-

ment of that one place will form the basis of an honorable career in the nation's service.

Assuming that a young man twenty years old, with a high-school education and two years' commercial experience, aims for the chief clerkship of a department: His first step is to secure a clerical position by competitive examination. Immediately upon entering the civil service he will matriculate at one of the colleges in Washington, selecting a career that will lead to the degree of A. B. Upon the completion of his college course at the end of four years he will begin a three-year course in law. He will thus spend seven years in educating himself. While serving these seven years he should have received promotions bringing him up to an annual salary of $1600. Upon completing his law course he is ready to battle for the object of his ambition—the department chief clerkship.

Self-advertisement is now indicated. His educational attainments will entitle him to membership in a good club, where he should make his influence felt in a quiet conservative way, and where he should make friends. He will be on the constant lookout for opportunities, always keeping abreast of progress. By making a close study of department methods and practice he will make himself known in his bureau and his advice will be sought by the higher officials. He will be careful to associate himself as closely as possible with the department officials, avoiding remote

assignments even at higher pay and positions involving merely routine duties. Upon the occurrence of a vacancy in the position which he covets he will go to the proper officials and lay his case before them, a course that is frequently unnecessary for one who has proven his mettle.

If a man's ambition lie among the higher offices outside of the so-called civil service, a political career is indicated. If a scientific career be chosen, specialism in his favorite profession supplemented by published work will bring him honors.

Fixity of purpose, in all cases, is the one stern rule to be followed.

CHAPTER XIII

GOVERNMENT SERVICE AS A STEPPING-STONE

THE ambitious man makes his employment a stepping-stone to success. The average young man is ambitious and in beating about for an opening he will utilize individuals and establishments as rungs to his ladder; his employer's interests will be cast aside when he sees better opportunities. It is not pertinent to discuss the ethics of this practice. Utility is everywhere recognized; it is acknowledged by individuals, the business and professional world, and the Government. Moreover, the utilitarian is pointed out as one who builds.

It is the part of an ambitious man to give his best efforts to everything he undertakes, the result being that he makes himself valuable wherever his activities lie. The business man would rather surround himself with a handful of ambitious workers than twice the number of half-hearted ones, even if he know that he can retain their services but a short time. The commercial man welcomes ever so short a contract with the ambitious man of capability, well knowing that he will be used as a stepping-stone but that his busi-

ness will be benefited by conscientious and intelligent attention. No business deteriorates by employing successful men.

The same principle applies to Government service. While our merit system offers special inducements in the way of liberal hours and secure tenure of office, it in no way compromises a man's career or enters into a contract to defeat his hopes by withholding from him a short period of public service. On the contrary, the value of new blood is well recognized throughout the Federal establishment.

The young man seeking Government service with the avowed purpose of using it as a stepping-stone in his life career need have no hesitancy in carrying out his policy. It is to be remembered that ours is a Government of, by, and for the people. It was not intended by the founders of these United States that our Government should settle into the hands of any favored class to the exclusion of others, and it is particularly contrary to the principles of good government to exclude the ambitious man from even a brief participation in the actual work of administering public affairs. This point is raised for the reason that one sometimes hears individual objection to the practice of young men accepting appointment for short periods during which they hope to equip themselves with a university education or until outside interests absorb them by better inducements.

In the words of the Secretary of the Navy:[1]

> Many of the young men furnished by the operation of the civil-service law are too competent and ambitious to remain permanently in the Government service, in which the prospect of advancement practically disappears after the attainment of a salary which a capable young American is unwilling to consider enough for him to expect for the balance of his life. As a consequence of this, resignations are continually tendered by the most useful and competent clerks . . . because they have opportunities for more desirable employment.

There are many hundreds of young men in the United States civil service whose purpose is to hold their positions but a few years, then enter private life, having worked out their ends. Some of these want a college education, some seek political honors, others look to the wide field of business, still others wish to enter the professions. These young men represent new blood, fresh vigor, renewed activity, original ideas, strong hopes, and high ambitions. Their influence is good and wholesome. They come and go among their official associates, infecting them with the clean vigor of their energy. Free from the chains of habit, their influence is to lift others from the toils of routine and point the way to a better service. Every year sees an influx of these young men and a corresponding outpouring into private

[1] Report of Secretary of the Navy, Miscellaneous Papers, 1905, p. 8.

life. They are welcomed by the administrative heads, who know that the Government benefits by their short service.

The young men themselves are double gainers. Not only do they work out their purpose, but while doing so they gain a knowledge of Government at first hand that will always be valuable. Entering private life they carry with them a remembrance of the problems of administration, and their acquaintance therewith will always prove an incentive to keep a true interest in things pertaining to the Commonwealth. Association, even for a year or two, with the Government results in better citizenship.

The Government is looked upon as a training school by a large percentage of private establishments, who draw upon it for assistants. Many young men are quick to recognize this and enter the Federal service for the purpose of obtaining good training and the prestige that Government service confers. They pay close attention to business, develop their specialties, make a name, and accept one of the many offers that private interests are continually making to Federal assistants.

As a training school the Government presents two distinct phases: To certain classes of young men seeking careers in private life the Federal establishment offers unexcelled opportunities for acquiring thorough training and experience; of the rest, who constitute perhaps 95 per cent. of the

whole number, the Government demands thorough training instead of offering it. It is therefore important that a man looking to the Government as a stepping-stone in his career should familiarize himself with conditions before deciding upon his course. In looking over the ground he should avoid the possibility of using his office for private gain without rendering value received; conditions are not favorable for that thing at present and they are growing more unfavorable year by year.

The greater number of positions in which training is received are of scientific nature. A young man may begin in some bureaus, notably the Department of Agriculture, at the nominal salary of $40 or $50 a month, and receive training that will fit him for the superintendency of scientific departments in agricultural or manufacturing establishments. These places are under the civil service and can be secured only through rigid examination, usually in subjects that only a college graduate can pass. They are the positions scheduled as "scientific assistant" or "aid" in the civil-service manual.

It is occasionally possible for the aspiring young man to secure appointment in a scientific bureau at a very nominal salary, say $1.00 a month merely to comply with the statutes, and secure excellent training in special lines of work supplementary to his college course. It usually requires personal or political influence to secure an appointment of this kind, as the practice is

extremely limited and good reasons must be presented for requesting such an assignment.

A good plan for one adopting Government service as a means to an end is to outline a course of procedure and then adhere strictly to the original purpose. Thus, one accepting the position of scientific assistant at a small salary in the hope of gaining experience for private enterprise must not be swayed by the temptations of higher salary in other Federal bureaus or in private life where the duties required would carry him out of his chosen field of work. Again, the temptation to remain too long in a position must be guarded against.

There is no better opportunity in this country for the young man depending upon his own resources to secure a thorough education than is offered Government employés stationed at Washington. A large number of excellent educational institutions are located at the capital, among them several of the country's big universities numbering thousands of students. The doors of practically all these institutions are open to the department worker, having lecture hours especially arranged to accommodate him. Owing to short official hours and ample provision for vacation, the department employé may secure a complete university education and occupy a public office at the same time. By judiciously distributing his vacation he may spend four or five years in college, equip himself with a profession, and find

himself the possessor of a snug bank account at the end of that time, a condition that is scarcely possible for the young man working his way through college elsewhere.

Usually the self-dependent student finds himself in debt at the end of his college course. Conditions in Washington are the reverse. Thus, a young man desiring to take up law as his life career may secure a clerkship in the departments at Washington, attend one of the law schools there, and when he receives his degree at the end of three years he should have enough money saved from his salary to carry him through a year or two of the starving period. The same thing is true of physicians, dentists, professors in educational institutions, and a wide variety of technical occupations.

It is not generally known that such opportunities lie within reach of the aspiring, but poor, young man. There are thousands of ambitious young men who are compelled to secure an education as best they can and find themselves laboring under the most adverse financial conditions just at the time when they can least afford to be burdened with such troubles. The long hours and often total lack of vacation in commercial life are not conducive to securing a college education by the hampered young man. The opportunities for getting a university education while serving in the departments at Washington are becoming more widely known, with a result

that a greater number are taking advantage of the conditions. This is one of the reasons that the demand for Washington assignments is so strong.

Young Government employés assigned to large cities away from Washington seldom have chances to take courses at a college. The institutions in other cities do not face the conditions that prevail at the capital. The large colleges and universities will not cater to the few students seeking the privilege of other than the regular lecture hours, and such institutions as do offer courses are compelled to carry on their work at night to accommodate commercial employés whose working hours extend far beyond those of the office-holder.

A favorite plan of those adopting Government service for the purpose of securing an education, is to select a profession, go through college, and enter upon the practice of their profession after official hours. A young graduate in medicine, for instance, will secure his degree, pass "the State Board," hang out his sign and practise outside of department hours, getting experience and saving money prior to devoting his whole time to medicine. This is called "sun-downing" in Washington, where the practice is common.

The young politician sometimes comes to Washington or takes a position in a Federal office at large to get a good idea of government at first hand. The young man entering politics usually

conceives that the first duty of a politician is to secure election to office, forgetting that the elective Federal offices, like municipal offices, constitute scarcely one sixth of one per cent. of the total number. Few think of first securing a Federal appointment as a stepping-stone to their chosen career. It will pay any aspiring young politician to secure a place in one of the departments at Washington and hold it three or four years prior to taking an active part in local politics. By keeping his eyes and ears open and adopting an inquisitive manner he can learn more of practical government in three years spent in Washington than he could hope to learn in half a lifetime elsewhere. What is more, he will begin his political career aright, for he will not have a chance to become imbued with the corrupt ideas of his local "boss"; he will learn to think for himself instead of having some one else think for him.

The logical place to study Government is Government headquarters, not in some remote city hall. This is well recognized by the Congress. A new Congressman is invariably subjected to a thorough course of training by the House or the Senate before he is permitted to occupy much of the legislators' time. The first term in the Congress is usually spent in learning, the Speaker assigning the new member to places on unimportant committees and transferring him to more desirable ones as he learns the methods of law-

making. Finally, after the member has proved his capability he is assigned to important posts on committees and becomes a real influence in the nation's great body of law-makers. The successful Congressman must not only be familiar with Congressional methods, but he must be conversant with the ramifications of the executive departments; only by such knowledge will he be able to comprehend the needs of any arm of the Government. Such knowledge is best obtained by actual preliminary service in various bureaus, and a study of methods on the ground. There are to-day men in the Congress who began their careers as department clerks, using their positions as stepping-stones to political honors.

Other far-seeing young men have begun their careers in the departments at Washington as subordinates and fitted themselves for high posts. A number of officers now very high in the Government started in extremely modest positions in the Washington departments, then resigned for political service, only to return as influential officials. These careers are only beginning to become known to the public and are highly beneficial to young manhood. Emulation is an inherent virtue and, judging from the present, a few years hence will see the culmination of many more similar careers.

When it comes to using Government service as a stepping-stone to business careers there is a different story to tell. In the first place, the Government is slow to adopt new commercial

ideas and methods; tried systems are preferred. In the second place, the business conducted by the Government is a kind different from that followed by commercial houses. Corporate methods are given study by the Government, but only from a legal aspect. There is, generally speaking, but one branch of business for which the Government provides ample training and that is finance. Even this branch is confined to narrow limits. A relatively few places under the Treasury Department offer opportunities for training in the broad, fundamental principles of finance. Young men who associate themselves closely with the higher Treasury officials quite generally are offered responsible positions with financial establishments in various parts of the country. Outside of these few, whose opportunities are somewhat dependent upon luck and personal favoritism, the chances for business training are nil.

Taken as a wide proposition, Government service unfits one for business life. A young man just out of school, entering the Federal service and remaining there ten years, is entirely unfit for business life and would be a total stranger in the modern commercial office. He lacks the soul of business. His official duties prevent him keeping up with business progress, and he does not acquire the snap and energy developed in the clash of commercialism. The young man intending to take up business as a career should not spend more than three years in Government offices;

otherwise he will certainly find himself stranded in the business office.

As a stepping-stone to science some chances are offered in the scientific bureaus. This is particularly true of the so-called practical sciences as differentiated from the natural sciences. So long as the scientist does not attempt to commercialize his profession he will find the chances for training in the Federal establishments suitable for a modest career. The demand for Government scientists to take salaried places in agricultural and commercial life is considerable, particularly for the specialized expert. Certain branches of Federal scientific work are conducive to narrowly limited specialism, a training that is seldom to be gained in private life. Private establishments are not inclined to offer long courses of training, only to find their assistants leaving them at the completion of their education. The logical course is to look for men who already have the training. The researches and investigations conducted by the Government not infrequently bring fine offers to persons having them in charge.

There is little doubt that the field of agriculture offers the best inducements for training at public expense. The work of this great department has been fostered to a liberal degree, with the result that our agricultural interests have received pronounced benefits. A college graduate may enter the department at a nominal salary and be developed into an expert in any chosen branch of

agriculture. It is primarily the object of this department to promote the farming interests of the country. There is no objection, therefore, to training men for this field of usefulness and letting them take service in any private establishment where their knowledge will benefit agricultural interests.

A few branches of engineering also offer good chances to train for outside careers. These places are confined principally to the scientific corps of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Geological Survey, the General Land Office, and the Patent Office. The latter bureau seems to present especially favorable conditions for mechanical experts having a knowledge of law to train for positions and partnerships with firms of patent attorneys.

Public service appears to offer desirable opportunities for persons aspiring to a literary career, as it affords a sure and ready means of keeping the pot boiling while passing through the long starving period incident to the profession of letters. Life at Washington is particularly favorable to the literary worker. Many well-known and popular authors have homes there and some of them retain a connection with the Government. The clubs and societies suitable for authors and artists are such as to furnish a proper environment, and the cosmopolitan character of Washington's population furnishes the elements for a study of people not obtainable elsewhere in this

country, bringing together the national life of all peoples of the world. Considerable newspaper and magazine work issues from the pens of Government employés and officials; the training of the Federal office is conducive to accuracy of statement if not freedom of style. Struggling literary workers might do well to turn to the civil service until they are able to stand alone.

The following outline of a plan for adopting the civil service as a stepping-stone may be applied in principle to any career:

Assuming that a high-school graduate eighteen years old, dependent upon his own resources, is ambitious of becoming a physician; he should spend his nineteenth year studying stenography and typewriting. As soon as this art is mastered, he will take the civil-service examination in stenography and typewriting, specifying $900 a year as his minimum entrance salary. Upon passing he is reasonably sure of appointment, for, in the words of the Civil Service Commission, "the demand for male stenographers is scarcely equal to the supply." At twenty years of age he takes service with the Government at Washington and matriculates at one of the medical colleges there. The next four years will be spent in the double occupation of serving the Government and studying medicine, the student distributing his thirty days' leave of absence to fit his studies. Upon graduation he should be in receipt of not less than $1200 a year, promotions coming more

surely and rapidly to stenographers than to any other grade of civil-service employés. He will at once qualify for practising medicine in the District of Columbia and hang out his sign. He will hold his position for another two or three years, picking up such patients as come his way after official hours, and save his money. He will now be about twenty-seven years old; he should be free from debt and have at least $1500 to his credit at the bank. He is now ready to resign his position and go anywhere he chooses to enter upon his life work, prepared to face the obstacles of a slender income for several years. At thirty years of age he should have built up a paying practice.

This general plan may be suited to any career except a merely commercial one, and all parties are gainers. The Government benefits by the ambitious example set for other employés as well as by the attention given to official business; the young man benefits by a practical acquaintance with the great Federal machine in addition to the career he has chosen.

The only thing that might prove objectionable to adopting Government service as a stepping-stone is the possibility of neglecting official duties by giving too much attention to outside interests, either through physical or mental exhaustion or lack of genuine interest in the public work. Such a contingency must be strictly and unequivocably avoided, for it is unfair to the Government and smacks of unethical practice in the individual.

Owing to lack of attention to duty on the part of students, or others in the civil service having outside interests, executive officers have sometimes found it necessary to discourage "side lines." It is quite generally recognized, however, that so long as an employé performs the duties of his office and conducts himself as a gentleman he is at liberty to follow his own bent outside of official hours.

CHAPTER XIV

FAULTS AND ETHICS

FEW persons there are who like to be told their faults. Some forgotten sage once said that "a true friend tells you your faults." Just how far this is true is open to question. A sure way to make one's friend his enemy is to prate about his faults; he will not be slow to express his disapproval by cutting friendship. The only safe way to proceed in fault-finding is to specify no one, but put it impersonally by saying, "The fault with a great many people is," etc. Only the brazenly guilty can feel hurt at this. Therefore, with this preliminary apology, no one need fit the following well meant suggestions to himself if he be not so inclined.

FAULTS OF EMPLOYÉS.—To begin at the beginning is to take up the new appointee. A majority of "freshmen" coming to the Government are quite like their prototypes in college and they go through a similar course of training down. Self-conceit is a predominant characteristic. This is often coupled with sublime ignorance of Government methods.

Probably the worst type of freshman comes from commercial offices, where his training has been limited to short-cuts in producing money profits. Employés of this type are usually inaccurate in small things and show a disposition to ignore technicalities, setting down such practices as "red tape." It is for the freshmen that the six months' period of probation was designed and it takes just about that length of time for them to find their level.

There is a tendency on the part of some employés to belittle Government ways and methods. This is especially true with a certain class of subordinates, met in every large office. Their specialty is sneering; their inferiors are "poor devils," their superiors "fools." Their nature is a suspicious one that views everything and everybody with misgivings. Rarely efficient themselves, they are surprised that anything can be accomplished under the present régime; the success of any person or project is a source of keen disappointment and promptly elicits a prediction that the ultimate result will be disastrous. Fortunately employés of this kind are few in number, as their influence upon fellow servants is baneful. A new or inexperienced appointee thrown into close relations with a man of this type is sure to become imbued with cynical ideas that may take years to eradicate. Men of long public service are not affected, but the freshman, alert to the new life, is peculiarly susceptible. It is advisable

for the young man entering Government service to avoid the railing member of his office staff as he would the snapping street cur.

Closely related to the scornful employé is the complaining one. "All spirited animals kick over the traces at times," but they do not do that all the time. Everybody has cause for complaint at times and no one objects to hear a word of protest occasionally; but eternal complaint is irksome and accomplishes nothing. The complainant is never satisfied with anything; he does not condemn things wholesale, but everybody and everything falls a little short. Often his ideals are high, sometimes he is affected; his disposition is changeable in everything but that of complaint. Government methods of doing business receive much of his critical attention and he proves a bore by harping upon life's shortcomings. A thoroughly accomplished complaining employé often does real good by setting a ridiculous example to his fellows and showing them what a nuisance one can be if he try.

Factional differences often do considerable harm. The jealousies that arise in Federal bureaus sometimes smoulder for years and then suddenly flare out with such fury that the newspapers take them up and the world learns of them. Most of the scandal originating in Government bureaus could be avoided if the participants had enough self-respect to bear themselves as gentlemen. That good cause for resentment may exist is

unquestionable; but when this resentment takes the form of "rings" and "cliques" it mocks the service and deserves to be suppressed with a stern hand. Our newspapers do the Government and the public a commendable service by publishing the details and names of participants in "rings" and "gangs." Public exposure is a powerful factor in effecting reform. The office-holder should constantly bear in mind that he is working for the United States and not for an individual, and that anything that interferes with the discharge of duty is hurtful to the Government. Factional quarrels should be carefully guarded against and spite promptly killed. Beginners especially should let stories savoring of jealousy go in one ear and out the other.

There is little change, little new environment in the average Government office especially in positions of a clerical nature. Routine work often results in employés getting into ruts and degenerating into machines. A goodly proportion of the older Government clerks are to-day stranded with scarcely a hope of reaching firm footing. Clerical work as performed in the large offices is conducive to ambition-wrecking. Often the work is highly specialized without the advantage of offering the clerk any discretion; he is compelled to act according to precedent and within very narrow limits, giving him no opportunity to display his real ability.

One must have strong will power, lasting am-

bition, and an inquisitive interest in life when called to devote years to changeless routine at the same desk with promotions few and far between, as is the case in many of the big offices at Washington. There are hundreds of men in the Washington departments whose sole interest in the Government is limited to their pay envelopes; they live from hand to mouth, are careless of their personal appearance, slow of gait and slower of thought, care nothing for the country's political conditions, and are cheerless to a despondent degree. Many of these clerks were once of strenuous ambition and might have developed into men of conspicuous value to the Government but for unfortunately becoming victims of circumstance and martyrs to their positions. While most of them are men of matured years some are still in early manhood.

The necessity of keeping young and vigorous cannot be impressed too strongly upon new appointees and prospective candidates for Federal positions. The influence of routine is fatal to some persons; such should avoid it and, if appointed to a position requiring it, secure another assignment. There is no question about details tending to contract the mental horizon. No matter how bright, a man may get into a rut by being assigned uninteresting or uncongenial work. As soon as one loses interest in his work it is time for him to inquire into the cause and correct it accordingly; let him look at himself first, then at

his work, and, no matter where the cause lies, it is his duty to correct it. It is particularly advisable for the young man to consider well his career and always keep himself in physical and mental readiness to grasp an opportunity. It will be remembered that the man of alert mental perceptions and vigorous ambition makes the better success and consequently the better citizen.

Widely separated from the man in the rut is the one who carries his work wherever he goes, not the actual work itself but, worse, its worries. It is bad enough that the commercialist should grow old before his time in the strife of accumulating wealth; it is worse that the public employé should form this bad habit. The annoyances and worries of the office have no place in one's private life and they should be left in the office desk. The mind is entitled to rest and recreation to a greater degree than the body. Rest assures a secure and more logical consideration of business. The man who leaves his worries at the office will be able to take up his official duties the next morning with a clear mind.

A fault that takes firm hold of some employés is that of promotion agitation. Young men especially are likely to be seized with a desire for rapid promotions, particularly if the commercial instinct is strongly developed. The executive heads of bureaus are not infrequently bombarded with applications for promotion, even when it is evident that there is no vacancy. It

is perhaps enough to dismiss comment upon this fault with the suggestion that when one finds his commercial instincts taking precedence over his official duties a business career is indicated.

Owing to the minute details that office-holders are called upon to discharge, the fault of enlarging upon life's trivialities sometimes develops. This fault is noticeable in the employé's private life as well as at the office. The habit of attaching undue importance to trivial duties may show itself to unfavorable advantage in affectations of speech or manner. Halting, stilted speech and clumsy attempts at over-exact expression, resulting in ridiculous exaggerations of manner, are not uncommon among a certain class of Federal employés. A common-sense view of official duties and an effort to keep informed upon world progress will usually serve as a buffer for this and many other faults.

The lazy employé is not an unknown thing. Notwithstanding the régime of energy that the past few years have witnessed, there is still room for improvement on the part of certain employés who display too much deliberation over public business. Under the spoils system shiftlessness and lack of energy were winked at; they are not given such scant recognition under the merit system as at present operated. A display of laziness and inattention to duty is now cause for reprimand, and justly so.

Speaking disparagingly of friendly nations is

discourteous and especially to be condemned in office-holders. Unpleasant altercations often arise in the family of nations and it is but natural that individuals should form some opinion of the merits of each case and sympathize with one side or the other. Wars or quarrels between foreign nations have developed such strong feeling in this country that it has become necessary for the President to issue stern orders to all office-holders, directing them to express no opinion either in public or in private upon such questions. It is quite as unbecoming for Federal servants to take sides with one friendly nation against another as it is for individuals to take up the quarrels of their friends. It is natural that citizens of our country should sympathize with the presumably oppressed in an international quarrel; but it is a breach of etiquette for public employés to give expression to their personal sympathies, an action that might be interpreted as hostility. The late misunderstanding between Japan and Russia, and between Great Britain and the South African republics, are cases in point. In similar cases it is the duty of office-holders to give no expression to their sympathies, remembering that the quarrelling nations are all friendly to us and we to them.

Not only should the Federal employé avoid taking sides in times of international strife, but he should not speak disparagingly of any nation with which we are on terms of friendship. Be-

littling this or that country because of a difference in government, language, or customs ill becomes the office-holder, whatever private opinion he may hold. It should be the aim of every Federal servant to promote his Government's relations with other nations by manifesting a spirit of cordiality and friendliness toward them.

FAULTS OF OFFICIALS.—"The king can do no wrong" is a blind doctrine in our time. Kings have faults as well as their subjects, and so have the officers of our Government. The shortcomings of Government employés are many, particularly if regarded from the viewpoint of the cynic; those of the executive officers may be less in number, but those they have are more conspicuous owing to the prominence of their positions. The public is always ready to criticise the officials, who are compelled to look well to their steps in executing the public trusts given into their hands. The failure of the employé is magnified when seen in the official.

One of the meanest faults, when exercised by officials, is that of discrimination. This may take a number of directions; it may be aimed against a policy, against the citizen, the public employé, a class of people, creed, color, geographical position, a foreign power, and a multitude of interests and rights attaching to the citizen. On the other hand, the official may show favor in the same way, which is almost equivalent to discrimination. Prejudice is generally the

cause of discrimination; sometimes it is favoritism due to personal or political obligation.

This fault is invariably baneful and ruinous to discipline. Its appearance in an administrative officer sometimes results in disruption in the office and nasty scandal, only quenchable by the official's removal from the service. The basis of the merit system is efficiency and fairness, and the officials who are entrusted with the system's administration betray the Government and ignobly fail in their public duty by violating the laws against discrimination. It is not meant by this that officials should not favor efficient assistants as against the less competent ones, a practice that is conducive to the best service; discrimination against persons or policies that plainly make for the public good is meant, a practice that can have no defence from whatever point it is considered.

Akin to discrimination is the fault of non-appreciation. This fault is confined largely to the Government offices and is best seen in the case of subordinates performing work for which administrative officers take credit. Not a little work is performed entirely by subordinates who lay the completed work before their immediate superior, who in turn makes a report to his chief and fails to give credit where credit is due. The assistance rendered by subordinates is often accepted to the full without a word of encouragement from the executive officer under whom they

work. While it is true that the employé's duty is to obey orders, the official ought to show his appreciation either by word or deed; if he does not, he violates the spirit of the merit system in that he fails to encourage efficiency. Encouragement is a powerful factor in promoting efficiency. Fortunately, this is the usual thing, but it is not universal and the new appointee must not be too much surprised to find that he does the work and some one else receives the credit. The proper step in cases of this kind is for the employé to take the first opportunity to get away from that office.

A peculiar fault is sometimes seen in officials who conceive that public duty demands their issuing many orders to subordinates and surrounding themselves with intricate systems of procedure, emphasizing the importance of trivialities. Executives of this type lack the broad-minded grasp of life. They have made the mistake of accepting appointment to a post too big for their capacity. An office administered by an official of this kind becomes restless; the subordinates soon come to view the radical methods with suspicion and, through a confusion of regulations and minute instructions rapidly promulgated, commit many breaches of discipline all of which are magnified out of proportion to their importance. The result is trouble and reprimand.

It is the habit of exercising minute and arbitrary oversight of all details, and insisting upon the per-

formance of every duty with infinite exactness, that originally developed the jeer of "red-tapism" flung at the Government's business methods. It was once the usual thing throughout the departments, but in late years the higher executive officials have discouraged the practice. It is still in evidence, however, here and there.

Personal exploitation at the Government's expense seems to be a favorite shortcoming. This offence against civic duty is not carried to the degree of actual dishonesty. It consists of unethical self-advertisement, such as usurping credit for accomplishing things done by others, the expounding of personal theories in Government publications, voluminous authorship in which self is altogether too conspicuous, and other practices valuable to the individual but from which the Government derives no benefit. The average article coming from the pen of a Government author has long been the subject of merriment in the newspaper columns; and it must be said, however bad newspaper English usually is, that much of the journalist's comment has been well founded. Authorship appears to be a choice method of personal exploitation; spectacular officialism is a close second. It is right that one should seek to advance his own interests and build up a career; but it is not right to undertake this without giving value received. It is wrong in principle and a career founded upon it cannot be truly successful.

FAULTS OF CITIZENS.—The chief fault of the public in its relation to the Government is fickleness. This is best understood by the politician who depends upon a constituency for his success. So changeable is the public that one cannot predict a month ahead what its mind will be toward a popular official. There have been instances in our history where a single insignificant act in a lionized officer has reversed adoration into condemnation. Parties have been swept into power, only to meet the united curses of the whole country. The execution of policies, the enforcement of laws, the enactment of necessary legislation are as likely to meet popular disapproval as a spirit of total negation. Again, the public may wink at acts in the official that are in plain violation of the law and the Constitution. The most successful politician is the one who can best read the signs of the times and who can oftenest forestall public opinion.

The citizen owes a duty that he apparently does not recognize; it is the duty of loyalty. What our Federal officials need badly to-day is the support of our citizenship. There is entirely too much disparagement of the official's endeavor; to disparage a man's efforts is a poor way to help him. Our people need to remember that officials and public employés represent the Government, not themselves, and that they need support accordingly. It matters not to what political party an official adheres, he is engaged in public service

and it is a poor show of citizenship to condemn his efforts at performing his duty. While it is true that occasionally an office-holder is found here and there to prostitute his office, it is equally true that the vast majority render good and conscientious service; it is out of place to launch wholesale condemnation because of the shortcomings of one or two individuals. The least that the citizen can do is to lend encouragement, and that ought to be given freely in the country's interests.

The literature upon civil service in this country —national, state, and municipal—seems to be a unit in fault-finding. Many of the writers have no first-hand knowledge of conditions, no actual experience under any civil-service system, and depend upon theory for conclusions. The tendency is to set ideals altogether too high and to be satisfied with nothing short of those theoretical planes of perfection. Any one finding flaws in our civil-service system feels constrained to go into print with a criticism, deprecating conditions and pointing out the folly of this or that feature; sometimes he suggests remedies, oftener he is content with mere fault-finding.

Persons wearing smoked glasses naturally see things with a smoky vision. Before directing so much criticism against our civil-service system it would be well for writers to remember that houses are not built by knocking off the shingles or breaking the plaster; nor is a convalescent

helped by giving him a dose of poison. Fault-finding is no criterion of wisdom, and no one will gainsay the folly of entrusting the upbuilding of a system of Government to unwise men. If some of our writers would spend five years in our national civil service, instead of issuing articles that smell of book dust and carry the marks of an overheated imagination, there would be a different story to tell. Let any one who doubts the efficiency of our system compare conditions under it with the conditions of public service before its establishment; the contrast will give an eloquent reply.

ETHICS.—The principles of right and wrong are pretty much the same wherever they are found; but conditions sometimes arise that make one ask, Is this proper? The world is growing better and our conceptions of ethics consequently become more refined. What was right a generation ago is no longer considered quite the thing. Reasoning by analogy, the next generation perhaps will not countenance some of the things we now practice. Our notions of right and wrong are to a certain extent the result of environment and training. It is a healthy sign for people to become restless and to demand reforms; it is a better sign for them to inquire into the ethics of the smaller things that make up a nation's life.

Civic righteousness is characteristic of individual uprightness. It is easy, therefore, to judge a people by their Government. It is not necessary

to specify examples, for the world well knows too many instances of governmental turpitude befitting the individual citizens. In times long gone by it was necessary for small nations to have a guarantee in hand when taking the promise of a stronger power. In our day a great nation's promise is unquestioned; there is no need for the small country to stand in awe of its powerful neighbor so long as it conducts itself uprightly and justly. America's boasted ambition is to lead the world in all things peaceful. She has already made magnificent strides in every direction—commercial, educational, geographical, and ethical.

Taking up ethical progress, free thought perhaps occupies as conspicuous a place as any other. No distinction is made in any branch of the Federal service on account of religion—in appointment, promotion, or compensation. The Constitution expressly guarantees religious freedom, and this is observed in spirit and in letter.

The Government officially recognizes Deity and so voices the common faith of mankind. In guaranteeing religious freedom, however, the Government does not permit the violation of law or encourage the overthrow of custom. Thus, persons belonging to sects who observe the seventh day of the week as the Sabbath are not allowed to absent themselves from duty on Saturdays and serve on Sunday in lieu thereof. Nor would any one be retained in the Government service

who was adjudged guilty of breaking the nation's laws, though the breach of the laws was made in accordance with a religious belief. The principle back of religious freedom is that its practice must not interfere with the rights of any other citizen.

There are in the American service persons of widely varying religions, all working together for the common good. Protestants, Catholics, Jews, Mormons, Mohammedans, with the denominations of each, have a like interest in this Government and hold office under it without respect to their faith. In so far as the Commonwealth is concerned everybody works for one cause—good government.

Closely related to religious freedom is that of class and caste. Various groups of our citizenship have at times tried to obtain a preference footing with the Government, but to no avail. The rich man has no more standing than the poor man; the laborer can expect no more favors than the capitalist. The Government knows no such thing as a "closed" or an "open" shop; the member of a secret society has no more privileges than one who enjoys no such affiliation. It is the aim of the Government to be fair to everybody, regardless of his position, family, or standing.

A sad feature of our national life is the unethical position which some of the larger commercial interests have taken in the race for wealth. This is exceedingly unfortunate, for our citizens have

been making splendid progress. The signs of the times point to better things, however, and the questionable practices of certain lines of business find no counterpart in the Government. On the contrary, the Federal establishment has been remarkably free from all serious taint. National mistakes have been made, but they have been due to errors of judgment rather than to turpitude.

American ideals are high and they are mounting higher. These ideals are displayed in our relations with other nations. It has long been a policy of our Government to be just and deal rightly in all international relations. We do not wish to despoil any country, wherever situated, nor do we want an unfair advantage. Our diplomacy is recognized by all countries as that of an honest effort to reach a correct understanding, in which we are willing to go a little more than half way. The artifices, prevarications, and ambiguities once popular with diplomats are no longer considered ethical. This country has been accused of inventing "shirt-sleeve" diplomacy, a term descriptive of candor. Our straightforward manner of negotiating international affairs is not to be construed as an abortive innovation or an attempt at eccentricity; it is merely the reflection of a people's character.

The same open manner that characterizes the Government's relations with foreign powers obtains in transactions with its citizens. The principle of right has first place—not a fanaticism, but

a conscientious effort to meet all propositions equitably. The laws of our country are not designed to build up one class at the expense of another. When laws are seen to develop this result they are superseded by others. The enforcement of the nation's laws is entrusted to men conscientious in the performance of duty.

No higher type of civic honesty can be found than that displayed by our Federal officials, regardless of party administration. The people's trust is seldom indeed prostituted by an official and never by the Government as a whole. No band of despoilers controls our Federal patronage as is the case in some of our municipalities; there is no "ring," no "gang" to rob the people. The ethics of the Government is so high, so far removed from taint, that it is unlawful even to solicit political contributions in Federal buildings or to "tip" officials or employés in the performance of their duties no matter how small the fee. It is a point of honor with the Federal official to keep himself above suspicion, and to this end the interchange of presents between officials and employés, or the acceptance of gifts from commercial sources, is not considered ethical inasmuch as it tends to create awkward obligations. The oath of office is a sacred instrument solemnly regarded. Men of doubtful character sometimes secure Federal appointment, yet these men seldom violate their promise to execute the laws in the spirit in which they were enacted.

Let the citizen who doubts the integrity of our Federal office-holders go over the list of convictions in malfeasance cases and compare them with the total number of office-holders. He will receive his answer in the minute fraction of one per cent., a fraction so small as to be an almost negligible quantity. If he believe that the office-holders are a predatory class who will not see any of their number brought to trial, let him consider the country's material, moral, and educational progress. He will receive an answer in the churches, the schools, and the factories of this great country. Nations do not prosper under corruption. Fortunately, the ethics of our citizens is of a high type, characteristic of the Government. The blots and canker-spots appearing here and there are the more conspicuous for our fair escutcheon and a greater effort is put forth to remove them. Our people are patriotic, but they closely follow their individual business and at times are seemingly unappreciative of the efforts of those set over them. This lack of appreciation perhaps is only seeming; for, let the occasion demand, and they rise to defend as one man regardless of party or geographical section. We are strong to uphold and strong to condemn. It is the ethics of a young and vigorous nation.

The same high plane of honor which supports the ethics of our Government in its relation to the people forms the basis of its relation to the office-holder. The public employé receives much better

treatment and greater freedom in all respects than are accorded his brother in commercial life. The paternalism of our Government protects the employé in a way beyond the comprehension of the private citizen. The laws that regulate his conduct grant him privileges and rights unobtainable outside of the public service.

The Government regards its office-holders as ladies and gentlemen, and views with suspicion suggestions to the contrary. The public official accused of malfeasance of office is not required to prove his innocence, a condition that prevails without recourse too widely in commercial life. In all its relations with the employé the Government proceeds with honor, granting him the very limit of his rights and privileges, and exacting from him implicit obedience to official regulations. It is expected that the official and employé will serve the State with honor and dignity.

CHAPTER XV

WOMEN IN GOVERNMENT SERVICE

IT is America's proud boast that in this country woman is queen. It is undoubtedly true that the American woman exercises greater independence of thought and action than in any other country. Here she is free to come and go as she pleases, hampered by few customs that work to her disadvantage. She is recognized as man's equal in all things consistent with nature and his superior in others; and this recognition is not one of sentiment, but of fact. Writers have sometimes questioned the wisdom of recognizing this equality, arguing that woman's elevation might turn her head. It is unnecessary to state their reasons; it is sufficient to say that she has displayed quite as good sense in solving life's problems as has man. The question of woman suffrage, to cite a conspicuous example, seems to have been settled to the satisfaction of all and man has had nothing to do with its solution.

There is to-day no field of activity closed to the American woman. The learned professions have all opened their doors to her; no trade is exempt from paying tribute to her industry; she is a

prominent factor in commercial economics; she remains the bulwark of the home; but what is her status under the Government? Do the conditions of low pay as compared with man and unequal opportunities obtain in the public service to the same extent as in private life? Is she compelled to do a man's work and receive less pay?

Our working women—meaning by that term all women engaged as wage-earners, of whatever class or station—rightly consider Federal service as a highly prized field for their activities. It is quite natural that women should desire to take a hand in executing the laws of this great country and to fill the posts of honor open to our citizens. The history of the executive service shows that women have held positions under the Government for many years, but it is only in comparatively recent years that their numbers have been of any consequence. Not until the establishment of the civil-service system were women appointed in any considerable numbers, inasmuch as the nature of conditions prior to that time was not favorable to their recognition as public servants, the positions going to men as party spoil. No doubt they would have gone to women in the same measure had women enjoyed the elective franchise and played a part in the country's political history.

Women were not slow to take advantage of the opportunities created by the promulgation of the civil-service law in 1883, and their endeavors to secure Federal places have increased rather than

diminished since that time. Unlike men, their efforts are confined almost wholly to securing appointment through competitive examination, inasmuch as political appointments are still closed to them. There have been but few instances of women securing political appointments, and then only because of services rendered the party in power. Such appointments have been so rare that they have always elicited wide comment.

As a general proposition, women's opportunities in relation to Government service are much less favorable than those enjoyed by men. This is true of appointment, salary, and promotion. The bald statement might mean much discouragement to the ambitious woman; but when all the facts are considered, the conditions do not appear so hard.

In the matter of examination there is no discrimination between the two sexes so far as the tests of fitness are concerned. It is not unusual for men only to be admitted to examinations for positions which women could fill, women being excluded owing to their slight prospect of appointment. To place large numbers of women on the registers of eligibles for positions to which men are usually certified would be to clog the registers and defeat the object of the merit system.

Appointing officers, meaning by that term the executives in charge of departments, have a right to fill positions with men or women as necessity or fancy dictates. Therefore, in applying to the

Civil Service Commission for certification of eligibles they usually state whether men or women are desired and the Commission honors their requests accordingly. Thus, assuming that a vacancy has occurred in the clerical staff of the Office of the Auditor for the Post-Office Department; the auditor makes the conditions known to the Secretary of the Treasury, specifying whether a man or a woman is wanted to fill the vacancy. The Secretary of the Treasury then makes a requisition upon the Civil Service Commission for three eligibles of the sex desired. If a male eligible be called for, no woman is certified; if no sex be specified, the highest three eligibles will be certified regardless of the sex. It will thus be seen that the Civil Service Commission exercises good judgment in barring women from examinations when it is a foregone conclusion that their chances for appointment are quite remote and when the registers are already overflowing with women. The conditions might be reversed to militate against men, which is sometimes done.

Women make a considerably better showing in examinations, all things being equal, than men. Taking the stenographer-typewriter examination as an index, an examination that is conceded to be the most difficult clerical examination offered by the Civil Service Commission, recent statistics show that of the women taking the examination 50 per cent. passed, while but 47 per cent. of men were so fortunate. In the examination for

departmental clerk 74 per cent. of the women passed and but 50 per cent. of the men. These figures are more eloquent than pages of words in commendation of woman's mental equipment for the examination room.

Compared with the number of men in Government service women occupy but few positions. According to the latest census[1] statistics, less than 8 per cent. of the total number of civil-service positions are filled by women, the other 92 per cent. being occupied by men. Were the scope enlarged to include all positions under the Government, whether in or out of the civil service, the number of women would fall under 5 per cent. Stated in other words, scarcely one person in ten in the civil service is a woman. The following table shows the relative percentage of men and women in the six groups of civil-service positions:

Positions	Percentage of males	Percentage of females
Clerical	94.3 %	5.7 %
Professional, technical, and scientific	97.4 %	2.6 %
Executive	98.7 %	1.3 %
Mechanical	97.3 %	2.7 %
Sub-clerical and laborers	83.3 %	16.7 %
Miscellaneous	97.5 %	2.5 %

It will be seen from this table that more women

[1] *Census Bulletin*, No. 94. Washington, 1908.

are employed in the sub-clerical positions than in all others put together. Under the head of sub-clerical are such positions as printer's helper, copy-holder, compositor, counters, and a wide variety of assistants that are scarcely clerical and yet are not to be classed as mechanical; women laborers hold such places as seamstress, repairer, janitor, and other positions involving manual labor. The pay for places of this kind is usually small when compared with the remuneration attached to the higher positions, as the requirements for appointment in the way of special attainments are quite meagre. Women living in the immediate vicinity of the place of occupation are appointed to such places; the Government does not expect any one to incur the heavy travelling expenses in accepting appointment to small-paying places at remote points.

Clerical places embrace the next largest number of women. Yet in these places there is an average of but one woman in every fourteen positions. The average shows considerably better in Washington, where the requirements for office-holding, however, are correspondingly higher. It will be observed that instances of women holding executive positions are few indeed.

There are certain places under the Government that women are peculiarly fitted to occupy, such as the positions of teacher, expert counter, various kinds of operatives, tabulators of statistics, and clerical places involving speedy routine. Men of

parallel attainments are seldom attracted to this kind of employment and when utilized are much less satisfactory and tractable than women. The Secretary of the Navy[1] says:

> For minor clerical positions involving routine duty and offering little prospect of promotion, I have endeavored to encourage the employment of women, against which some measure of more or less unreasonable prejudice seems to exist on the part of some officers.

Women are much harder working than men, due to the fact that they stand in greater fear of losing their positions, realizing that the handicap of sex militates against them in securing other employment. A woman will work to the uttermost limit of endurance if she think her position depends upon it, whereas a man is inclined to take his own time and act somewhat independently. This characteristic is well illustrated in the tabulation of census statistics. In taking the last census several instances arose when certain statistics were demanded by the Congress at a specified time. The tabulation of the statistics was almost wholly turned over to the women clerks for the reason that they could produce quicker and more accurate results than men clerks; the men balked at the hard routine, but the women took it up with a vim characteristic of the sex.

[1] *Report of Secretary of the Navy, Miscellaneous Reports*, 1905, p. 9.

A large number of positions filled by women in the Government Printing Office, and in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing, are exceedingly trying and offer no easier work than in commercial life. There is, however, in all cases the advantage of shorter hours and somewhat better pay, which add considerable value to the positions. Taken as a whole, no more favors are shown women office-holders than men; but there is a gallantry in Government offices and workshops that does not prevail in other establishments. This is a recognized part of official courtesy and is appreciated by women associates.

The higher positions filled by women are very desirable as compared with those in commercial life; indeed they can scarcely be compared with well paying positions in private business. As a first consideration, they are removed from the blunt manners and petty commercialisms of the business world; then there is a reasonably certain tenure of office, which is more than obtains elsewhere. The official life of the woman clerk is pleasant and congenial in most cases. Her work is rarely distasteful and is seldom overmuch in quantity.

As to the quality of work performed by women office-holders there is no doubt that it is in every way on a par with that performed by men, in many instances superior. Administrative heads have only words of praise for their women assistants, words that are sincere and based on effi-

ciency. While it is true that the women members of an office staff often engage in small talk during official hours, it is seldom that they designedly evade their duties or neglect their work as is sometimes the case with men. They seem to appreciate to a greater extent than men employés the fact that office-holding is a business proposition, and conduct themselves accordingly.

The efficiency rating of women is high. It is a rare thing, something almost unknown, for a woman to use her official position for mercenary ends. The accusation of a woman for malfeasance of office is next to unknown, only a few instances in the entire history of the American Government being on record. This speaks well for the conscientious attitude that our women office-holders assume toward the Government. Women also entertain greater pride of position and a higher sense of dignity than men, another good trait considered from an official viewpoint.

Women's opportunities under the Government, considered generally and in detail are much less numerous than those coming to men. This is true throughout the Government in all its ramifications, whether at Washington or elsewhere. The only exceptions lie in the positions which, by their nature, are suitable for women only. There is great difficulty for women to secure appointment and the chances for rising to the best salaried positions are nil.

There is a prejudice in nearly all Federal offices

against employing women in positions which men can fill. This prejudice does not lie in an arbitrary notion or a feeling of jealousy on the part of the officials or men employés, but is based on the assumption that man is the natural and logical breadwinner and that every position occupied by a woman cuts off some man's source of income. While it is recognized that there are many thousands of women breadwinners in this country who are the heads of families or have others dependent upon them, the Government does not take cognizance of such conditions in making appointment except in isolated cases.

Sometimes a woman's necessities as a breadwinner come to the ears of an appointing officer and she profits by securing a position. These instances are rare and the necessities must be unusual for steps of this kind to be taken. Officially, of course, the Government does not raise the question of breadwinning in relation to appointment as the theory and practice of civil service is based on efficiency regardless of other conditions; but it must be conceded that nominating and appointing officers are human and often look farther into an eligible's claims for appointment than scholastic qualifications. Nominating officers desire to fill their bureaus with efficient assistants; many of them are very conscientious and go in for ethics. It is therefore natural for them to favor a man in making a recommendation for appointment, other conditions being equal, on the principle

that the man needs an income more than a woman.

The prejudice against the employment of women is not confined by any means to Government offices. There is a strong feeling throughout the country, even in corporations notorious for money-grubbing, that work should be given to men rather than to women. The justness or reasonableness of this feeling, whether in corporate or Government employment, is not for discussion here. The point is brought out merely as one of fact in accounting for a preponderance of men in positions that might be as well filled by women.

The pay of women office-holders is considerably more than that received for parallel services elsewhere. Thus, positions requiring manual dexterity without educational attainments that pay from $6.00 to $10.00 a week in business establishments pay from $9.00 to $18.00 a week in the civil service with the added advantage of shorter hours. Clerical places, such as those filled by bookkeeper, stenographer, cashier, and office assistant, netting from $10.00 to $15.00 a week in business offices pay from $15.00 to $30.00 a week in the Government; or, putting it in another way, the highest commercial pay for positions of this kind equals the lowest Government pay.

The highest pay of women office-holders runs from $1600 to $2000 a year. The positions paying such salaries entail considerable ability, either educational or executive; they include such posts

as those of translator, law clerk, librarian, forewoman, superintendent, expert statistician, stenographer, inspector, director, mathematician, and similar places which in business life pay from $1200 to $1500 a year.

As compared with the salaries paid men, a much better showing is made by women than in the case of appointment, the conditions more nearly approaching equality. The pay of women in the lowest grades is less than that of men. In the medium-paying positions the salaries of men and women rank equally, while in the higher posts the remuneration of men in proportion to the number employed is somewhat better than that of women. Here again is seen a manifestation of the prejudice against women, though the prejudice is quite slight, it being generally recognized that if a woman be appointed at all she should receive the same compensation as a man for like work. A woman clerk, for example, should expect the same entrance salary as a man, and in filling out the personal-question sheet of her examination she should specify her minimum salary on the basis of that paid a man.

In the matter of promotion women's chances are also quite equal to those of men up to $1800 a year, beyond which sum women seldom rise. When a vacancy occurs in one of the moderately paying positions, the promotion goes to the person next in line by seniority and efficiency, regardless of sex. In this respect Government women hold

a pronounced advantage over those in commercial service. The limit of promotion appears to end abruptly and unequivocally at $2000, which figure few attain. It is not the policy of this or any other Government to promote women to the highest political or civil-service places for the obvious reason that the burden of governing the nation, as in the case of a family or a commercial house, must necessarily rest upon the male representatives.

For economical reasons women sometimes seek the Government as an aid to their husbands, instances by no means lacking where both the husband and wife are in public service. Cases of this kind arise through purely commercial motives. This practice is not encouraged by the Government.

Federal service is not conducive to the marriage of women office-holders, particularly those filling the better remunerated positions. It takes a courageous woman to surrender a position paying $1200 or $1400 a year to marry a man receiving no more. The commercial side of the proposition cannot help but appeal to the average woman and she hesitates until she reaches an age where the chances of marrying become remote, either through choice or compulsion.

Some misunderstanding exists as to the social standing of women in Government service. Many suppose that office-holding entitles a woman to special privileges and unusual prestige in the circles of society. This is not true. The social

life of the Government woman does not differ in any material respect from that of women in private life. She observes the customs of polite society and good family, choosing such associates and diversions as appeal to her. She may be affiliated with various philanthropic, educational, religious, or social organizations as she desires. Her social life is rarely influenced by her official position.

The woman in the Government is in a different class from that filled by the man office-holder. Her prestige is measured by the size of her salary. Few persons in the Government service, men or women, receiving less than $2000 a year gain an iota in a social sense by serving the State. Society as at present constituted is largely dependent upon income, and the income of women office-holders is by no means sufficient to enable them to claim social prestige. The fact of employment, in itself, is against a woman's social career. Of course sensible women office-holders make no claim to social leadership; but all are not sensible.

The wives of Government officials take social precedence according to their husbands' rank. Thus the wife of a bureau chief takes social precedence over the wife of a chief clerk; the wife of a commissioned officer socially ranks the wife of a scientific expert. The question of social rank has torn the hearts of many wives and daughters, and has created some of the bitterest quarrels of official life. Men have lost positions and reputation through social intrigue.

The influence of women in relation to State affairs is all but unknown in this country. In Europe woman's power is great. There a social intrigue managed by a shrewd, designing woman may change a nation's destiny; it may precipitate war or may bring about peace. This unique realm of influence is due to conditions under monarchies and is not characteristic of any one people. The same thing would obtain in this country were the conditions favorable. Under our Government no one is entirely independent; democratic institutions are not favorable to social scheming, and as soon as any such proceeding comes to the ears of the people the god of public opinion does the work of adjustment.

The only place in our governmental institutions where woman holds a real influence is in the military and naval branch, and even here it is far from the height it has attained abroad. The shrewd wife of an army or navy officer can sometimes secure a desirable assignment for her husband; conversely, a tactless one may send her husband into remote corners of the earth or consign him to the most insignificant posts. Social influence is a power in army and navy circles, it is a rope of sand in the higher civil posts, and is unknown in the minor places.

CHAPTER XVI

THE COLLEGE GRADUATE IN PUBLIC LIFE

AMERICANS have a singularly uniform question that they fit to all things, a question that awaits ethical definition, but which is eminently practical—Does it pay? Whether it be agriculture, business, art, or learning, the question is asked with a sincerity that admits no equivocation. Perhaps other peoples ask themselves the same question with the same motive; but with us it is a habit, a first thought, a fixed trait indicating destiny. Our individual ambitions and our national hopes are dependent upon the answer to this little pointed question.

Every man owes three duties: One to his God, one to his country, and one to himself; the fulfilment of these duties is the culmination of a successful life. The man in the field, the laborer in the mill, the financier in the marts of trade, the scientist bending over the microscope, are bound in a degree proportionate to their capabilities. The duties rest upon all, but weigh with double responsibility upon those who are prepared by learning to bear them. The world expects something from every man, but looks to the man of

education for a greater contribution to the things that make for general betterment.

It is important for the college man to look about for the best that the world offers, for the right decision spells success for himself and good citizenship for his country. His long years of poring over books must not be wasted; they must be made to bring forth fruit. It is therefore, proper for him when seeking a career, whether in private life or under the Government, to ask himself the question, Does it pay?

In seeking an answer to this question two premises may be taken into consideration: The popular definition of the word "pay," and its beneficent meaning. In our rush for wealth and haste to accumulate, the idea of pay has been degraded into a synonym for "money." If the college graduate conceive money gains as the goal of learning his time has been wasted; he should have spent those four college years in the avenues of trade.

In scanning our long list of millionaires, men of learning are conspicuous by their absence. This is not putting a premium upon ordinary education, but illustrates the specialization of genius. The financier does not pretend to be at the front in things educational; that place is for the man prepared to fill it. Conversely, college training is not a proper one for the business world; business training is needed. There is no doubt that a liberal education is of immense value to the young man

for whom a business is waiting at the close of his university career. The business man can send his son to college and that son may rest assured that upon graduation he will be launched upon a business career and may develop into a rich patron of art or science. The poor young man, however, the one who must do his own struggling, has no time to spend in battling for a college degree if his hopes lie in a career of money-making. Instead of working and accumulating money to be expended upon an education, he puts every dollar where it will earn another dollar; instead of spending $2000 to $3000 and four years' time in securing a college education he utilizes that money and time in establishing a business. It is folly for a self-dependent man of money-making ambition to waste the best years of his early life in learning things that will not net him a dollar in the commercial world. This is taking business at its own and the world's estimation. The self-made business man has not had time to get a liberal education; his business has made him avoid everything that offers no promise of financial gain.

No one hears of the ambitious young scientist taking a four years' course of training in a business office as a preparation for a scientific career; such a course would be laughed at as silly. Why then should a self-dependent young man ambitious of a business career spend four years in securing something that will not profit him in dollars and cents?

Carrying the point still further, Why should a college graduate prostitute his learning for dollars? So voracious is the American appetite for gold that the money devil seems to have got his fangs into many of our university men, who bargain away their birthright for a mess of pottage and a very poor mess of pottage at that. It is the habit of bargain and sale among professional men that causes the business man to throw jeers into the teeth of our young college graduates. It is this money-making, gold-grabbing, penny-snatching habit that so often casts ridicule upon academical learning. We hear the question asked, Does it pay? repeated by lawyers, physicians, musicians, artists, engineers, authors, actors, office-holders, educators, legislators, and sometimes even clergymen.

In approaching Government service, therefore, it is not at all surprising that a young college graduate should ask himself, Does it pay? As a financial proposition there is but one answer and only one: Government service very pronouncedly does not pay. If considered from the viewpoint of a career offering honorable service and opportunities for doing a vast amount of good and making a name for self, the answer emphatically is, Government service does pay and pays handsomely.

Owing to world progress and the growth of modern ideas there never was so great a demand for educated, trained men in the Federal service

as there is to-day. This demand is confined to no one field, but exists in all branches of the public service.

In respect to the college graduate the Federal service may be divided into three branches: Military, administrative, and technical offices. Positions in the military or fighting branch include only those filled by commissioned officers of the army and navy, places that with few exceptions are filled only by graduates of the United States military and naval academies. So far as the graduate of any other college or university is concerned, the Army and the Navy have nothing to offer. Admission to West Point and Annapolis is limited, and the courses of study are designed with the sole idea of preparing graduates for taking command of fighting bodies of men. Their careers are confined strictly to the army and the navy, and their numbers are relatively few. A career in the army or navy is open only to the man who elects it upon graduation from the preparatory school; the man who waits for college graduation finds himself already too old to enter the fighting wing of the Government.

The opportunities for the college graduate in civil administrative offices are bright and every day growing brighter. This division includes a wide variety of places, from the modest clerkship in the civil service to the highest elective office within the gift of the people—that of President. The office may be appointive or elective; it may

come through competitive examination or be purely a political post subject to the caprice of party success; it may be a life position on the bench, it may be a commissionership for a day.

Many intelligent citizens suppose that any shrewd politician is competent to administer our Government and that a high degree of education is not requisite; that, in short, any one who can pass the "theoretical examinations" put up by the Civil Service Commission, or bring enough political influence to bear in securing appointment, is fully qualified to hold executive office. Persons having an idea that our office-holders are an unlettered lot should inform themselves. The fact that a President of the United States may have served as mule-boy to a canal boatman is no indication of illiteracy; Garfield the tow-boy was later Garfield the college man. It would surprise many to learn that the majority of our great men are college graduates. Education—meaning by that term learning and experience—attains a high average throughout the Government. If there be a career requiring education it is that of governing a nation. Whatever the educational requirements in other vocations, one cannot know too much or be too wise in the State's service.

The first thing that a man seeking Government appointment must demonstrate is his learning. The commercial ability to "read, write and cipher" is no recommendation; "quick at figures" has no weight in securing a Federal post. It is not enough

for the consul to have a "nose for business"; he must know something of his nation's affairs, the history of the country to which he is accredited, international law, questions of the day, and the doings of people who have gone before. It is not enough for the head of a bureau to carry out literally the department secretary's instructions; his duties entail a wide range of learning; he must be something of a diplomat, he must know a good bit of law, and be able to act intelligently upon a multitude of public questions; he should be able to make a short speech when called upon, and to hold a little bit more than his own wherever he is and with whomsoever he is associated. Such things do not come to a man over the commercial counter. Learning—which is but half of education—comes from the university; and when the applicant for a Government post submits his academic degree it means something, for it represents at least theoretical preparation.

Except in centres of foreign elements and a few remote districts, candidates for elective office no longer advertise their lack of academic education. The voters of a Congressional district, no matter how vague their ideas about educational qualifications of candidates in other districts, somehow want their own candidate to measure considerably above the average in education.

So great has the demand grown for legislators of high attainments that the Congressman who is not a college graduate is becoming rare. Any

doubting Thomas may prove this for himself by glancing at the biographies of our Senators and Representatives as published in the Congressional Directory, the official register issued by the Congress several times yearly. Of the Senators and Representatives serving in the Sixtieth Congress, 64 per cent. are college graduates. This shows that the college graduate has a distinct advantage over the candidate of lesser attainments and that voters, recognizing his superiority, give him their preference. This speaks well for an untrammelled electorate.

The high appointive offices are quite generally filled by men with college or university degrees. It is the exception to find members of the judiciary, commissioners, secretaries of departments, bureau chiefs, and heads of offices who have not had a college education. Members of the diplomatic corps are somewhat better educated, university degrees and post-graduate work being more in evidence.

So strong is the demand for college-trained men that many civil-service posts quite subordinate in their character are filled by graduates. The reason for this requirement of candidates for Federal service is not because the academic degree has grown common and is to be found everywhere, but because the Government has found that broad learning and sound education pay. There is not the least likelihood that the demand for college-trained men will diminish; the requirements will rather be raised. If indications count for aught,

the future will see an increasing percentage of university men filling our Government offices. The man ambitious of a career in the Federal service would do well, therefore, to profit by the signs of the times and prepare himself accordingly.

It is in the scientific field of Government service that the college graduate is seen at his best. The Government supports a large number of bureaus whose working bodies are composed almost wholly of university graduates. The scientist always has been a conspicuous part of our Government; he has demonstrated his practical worth so emphatically that the Government is no longer content to assign him solely to the work of planning and executing scientific undertakings, but is turning him into the immense fields of research.

There are now a number of well equipped Federal laboratories devoted to scientific investigations on original lines. A few years ago the suggestion of carrying on purely experimental work at the public expense would have been passed over as a fool's vagary. The research work now carried on by the United States Government includes investigations in medicine, pharmacology, chemistry, ethnology, geology, geodesy, terrestrial magnetism, mensuration, and a variety of specialties covering agriculture and animal husbandry. The Government no longer waits for discoveries to be made; it proceeds to make them.

Federal scientists have already made such a

name for themselves that various private institutions throughout this and foreign countries are continuously seeking their services through offers of handsome salaries and perquisites. The publishing of any special work by a Federal scientist results in his being offered high-salaried positions in private establishments. So promising are these offers that many of our scientists cannot resist accepting; others refuse, preferring a career with the Government.

As in other branches of high-grade Federal service, the scientist reaps but little financial reward. There are to-day doctors of philosophy on the Federal payroll at less than $100 a month; men with university degrees are at work for $40 a month. Does this mean that the Government is stingy? As a rule, no; it means that new lines of work are being taken up and that men are glad of the opportunity to get valuable experience at nominal financial remuneration. The true scientist rightly puts his profession first, his career second, and salary last; his ambitions lie higher than dollars, and he sees in the Government a splendid opportunity, notwithstanding the red tape, to realize his hopes. Under the Government a scientist has the time, the encouragement and the financial means of gratifying his ambitions. Moreover, by virtue of his official position his prestige becomes very distinct, a condition that is especially recognized throughout Europe, and this brings him into fellowship with the ablest

men his profession has to offer; if he be at all progressive, he grows in demand at scientific meetings and may become an authority in his chosen field.

Taking the college graduate as a factor in our Government we find him predominant. His is the place of the leader; to him the country now looks for development and execution of the principles that make for good government. However democratic our people may be, however independent in the matter of learning, however much inclined to the fostering of various cults, they must bow to the man of education and acknowledge him their leader. And this is rightly so. It is the history of the world that all progress is based upon education, and the same thing must apply to our Government. No matter from what depths of intermingling illiteracy and learning our electorate is culled, the man of education must lead.

The college graduate has a breadth of mind and a grasp of life that especially fit him for undertaking the affairs of a great nation. There are problems now facing this nation and the future will develop others, problems that require wise men to solve. It is folly to leave the adjustment of critical questions to the immature or undisciplined mind. The inclination is to trust less to the mere man of business in our Federal Government and give more authority into the hands of the man of liberal education. A tendency has

even developed toward filling strictly political places with the best men, regardless of party. This has been a growing policy for some years, and has made the Government a promising field for exploitation by college men in search of honorable careers.

The college man taking up Federal service as a career should supplement his university course by post-graduate work in law, colonial administration, political and social economy, and Governmental methods. He should not generalize too much in planning his career, but should specialize in certain branches of public work. The graduate whose preference is toward science should arrange a scientific career, the one with executive capacity will find administrative work particularly suitable. It is not necessary to confine his efforts to work within the so-called civil service; it is proper for him to assist in the election of good men to office, as this is a duty that every one owes to citizenship. It is a matter of personal choice whether he shall go before the people as a candidate for elective office, or adopt public service through the civil service or political appointment. A combination of the two methods may be adopted; many of our Representatives have served successfully in appointive positions before placing their names on a party ticket, while others have served in the Congress and then filled honorable careers in appointive office.

The college man looking to the Government for

his career must, above all, be practical. It will not do for him to cling to the dust of the ages. Latin and Greek, as such, have no place in our national life. The dreamer is as much out of place in the Government office as he is in the corporation. No Federal office-holder can succeed by burying himself in much learning. The learning he has acquired in college must serve as a stepping-stone in his career; it must act as discipline and mental training that will enable him to become a useful citizen and an intelligent public servant.

Another thing to bear constantly in mind is, public office is a trust. The mere fulfilling of duty is not enough; the truly successful official will go out of his way to accomplish things, and he will measure everything by a single standard—public benefit.

INDEX

A

Abuses, 70, 191, 271, 279
Advertisement, self, 182, 242, 282
Affability as an asset, 243
Age of appointees, 131; office-holders, 79, 252
Age requirements for examination, 108
Agricultural opportunities, 210, 224
Aide, scientific, 168, 172, 259
Aliens in civil service, 108, 109
Ambition, loss of, 274
Applicants for examination, number of, 45
Application for examination, 106
Appointees, ages of, 131
Appointive offices, 20
Appointments, 124; declination of, 144; in insular possessions, 112; preference, 135; prospects of, 128; temporary, 136; number of, 125; of women, 294
Apportionment, 54
Appreciation, 240
Apprentices, 132
Arithmetic, examinations in, 90, 93
Associates, official, 241
Attendant, in marine hospital, 51
Authority, centralization of, 4, 10, 70

B

Banking, experience in, 191, 193
Beginning low, 244
Blue book, 164
Bookkeeping, 129, 133, 138; entrance salary, 168, 171
Bureau of Engraving and Printing, 299
Business colleges, 98; experience in, 191, 193; methods, government, 22

C

Cabinet, what it is, 11
Career, choosing, 85; business, 264; government, 226; literary, 267; medical, 268; planning, 252; scientific, 266
Catholics in government service, 287
Censorship of correspondence, 202
Census Office, 34
Centralization of authority, 4, 10, 26, 70
Certification, 125
Charges of misconduct, 63, 67
Chief clerks, qualification of, 210
Chiefs of division, authority of, 12
Citizenship, 109
Citizens, faults of, 6, 283

Civil service, provisions of act, 40; commission, work of, 47, 188; extension, 46; schools, 98
Class and caste, 287
Classification, 49
Classified service, meaning of term, 20; extent of, 50
Clerks, entrance salaries of, 160, 168; technical, 195; women, 296
Closed shop, 287
Coaching applicants for examination, 102
Coast and Geodetic Survey, 194, 267
College graduates, 307
Colleges, commerical, 98
Colonial administration, 215, 318
Commercialism, 191, 193, 232, 251, 287
Commercial colleges, 98
Compositors, 133
Congenial work, 230
Congress, powers of, 8
Constitution, provisions of, 8
Consular service, 205
Contracts, securing, 23
Copying, examination in, 93, 94
Corporations, government regulation of, 192, 193
Correspondence, official, 29
Corruption, political, 5, 58, 288
Cramming for examination, 104
Credit, failure to give, 280
Crime, 108
Criticism, 30, 46; of foreign nations, 277; of officials, 238, 283
Custom-house service, 53

D

Departmental service, 53
Departments, list of, 11
Dignity of office-holders, 43
Diplomacy, "shirt sleeve," 288, 289
Discrimination, 279, 299
Dismissal from service, 108
Draftsmen, demand for, 129, 138, 168, 172
Duty of citizens, 4, 288

E

Economics, 219
Education, college, 307; securing an, 260
Educational requirements, 117
Editorial work, 200
Efficiency, 60; of women, 300
Elective offices, 20
Eligibility, 125
Employees, faults of, 271; thrift of, 248
Epidemic diseases, 221
Errors, how treated, 59
Ethics in government, 271, 285
Examination, 105; application for, 106; cut and dried, 114; grade subjects, 89; for insular positions, 112, 113, 217; optional subjects, 118; persons barred from, 108; practicability of, 88; special, 113; stage-fright, 120; of women, 294
Excepted positions, 21
Executive order, 20
Experience as an asset, 46, 116, 131, 191, 193

F

Faults, 191, 271, 279; of citizens, 283; of employes, 271; of officials, 279
Favored class, 46, 55, 99, 250

Favoritism, 55, 72, 182, 279, 299; in contracts, 36
Fee for examination, 110
First-grade subjects, 90
Foreigners in American service, 108, 109
Forestry, 224
Free thought, 69, 286

G

"Gangs," political, 289
General Land Office, 194, 267
Geological Survey, 194, 267
Good habits, 140, 252
Government, evolution of, 2; methods of, 22, 190, 318; organization of, 1
Government printing office, 34, 53, 299
Government service as a career, 226; stepping-stone, 255
Grade subjects, 90
"Graft," 58, 288

H

Hard work, 34, 61
Haste in examination, 119
Health, public, 221, 251
History of civil service, 38
Hobby, adoption of, 237
Hours of work, 81
House of Representatives, 8

I

Iconoclasm, 246
Idleness, 238
Immigration service, 143
Indian service, 53
Individualism, 234, 235, 274
Industry, 140
Ineligible applicants, 108
Influence in securing positions, 55, 109, 181
Insular possessions, government of, 13; positions in, 112
Internal Revenue service, 53, 143
Intoxicants, use of, 108
Isthmian Canal service, 113

J

Jews in American service, 287
Judiciary, 10

L

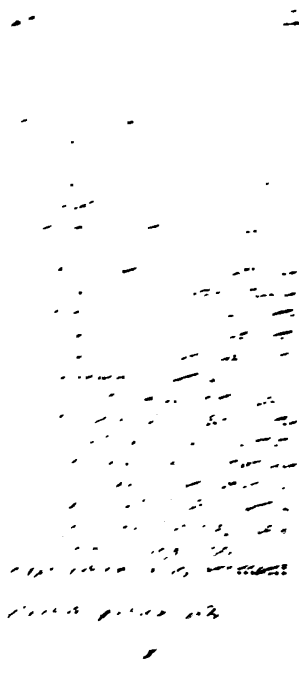
Laborers, examination of, 46
Law, education in, 193, 209, 318
Laziness, 277
Leave of absence, 81
Lèse majesté, 238
Letter-writing, 29, 91, 93, 94
Library methods, 203
Life-saving service, 143
Loyalty, 238

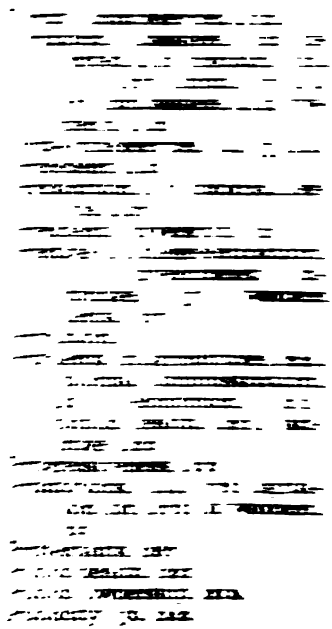
M

Mail-carrier, 170
Marriage of office-holders, 304
Mechanics, 132
Medical research, 223
Merit system, 38–82
Message of President, 15
Messenger boys, 132
Methods, government, 190, 318
Mistakes, how treated, 59
Monarchy, 3
Mormons, 287

N

National problems, 213
Navy yards, 143
Negligence, loss of position through, 33
Negro, appointment of, 56
Nepotism, 46
Newspaper representatives, 37; write-ups, 36





R

Railroad [illegible]
Railway mail [illegible]
Rank [illegible] of women, 305
Rating examination papers, 122
Recommendations, official, 35; for appointment, 56, 103
Red tape, why it exists, 25
Reexamination, 122
Reinstatement, 149
Religious freedom, 69, 286
Removal from office, 65
Research work, 223, 315
Responsibility of subordinates, 31

Rich men in office, 233, 287
"Rings," political, 5, 289
Rough draft, examination in, 92, 201

S

Sailors, preference, 135
Salaries, 151, 188; beginning low, 244; clerical, 160; consuls, 206; dockage, 177; entrance, 130, 164, 244, 303; foreign governments, 155, 178; inequalities, 174; librarians, 205; patent-experts, 207; statisticians, 205; women, 294, 302
Saving money, 250
Scientists, 45, 160, 168, 172, 259, 315
Schools, commercial, 98
Secret societies, 287
Secrecy, official, 36, 242
Self-advertisement, 182, 242, 282
Senate, relation to House, 8
Seniorage in promotion, 245
Sociability as an asset, 243
Socialism, 4
Soldiers, preference in appointment, 135
Southern office-holders, 56
Special examinations, 113
Specialism, 137, 142, 189, 194, 206, 209, 232, 235
Spelling, examination in, 90, 92
Spoils system, 38
Statisticians, pay of, 205
Statistics, specialism in, 205
Stenographers, women, 295, 303
Stenography, 129, 132, 138, 198, 268, 295, 303
Stepping-stone, government service as, 255
Suffrage problem, 220
Superannuation, 75
"Sun-downing," 262
System, government, 22, 190

T

Team work, 240
Technicalities, 246
Temporary appointment, 136
Tenure of office, 65, 69, 137, 229
Thesis-writing, 95
Third grade subjects, 93
Thrift of public employés, 248
Tips prohibited, 58
Trades unionism, 287
Training school, government as, 258
Transfer, 145; to Washington, 143
Translating, 202
Tuberculosis, 222
Typewriting, knowledge of, 132, 196

U

Unclassified positions, 21
Understudies, 245
Unionsism, trades, 287
University education, advantages of, 307

V

Vacation, 81
Voters, duties of, 4

W

Washington, service at, 142
"Wire-pulling," 181
Women, government service, 292; opportunities for, 294, 300; pay of, 302; prejudice against, 300; social standing of, 304
Work, congenial, 230; hours of, 81; lack of easy, 33, 238; research, 223, 315
Worry, 276

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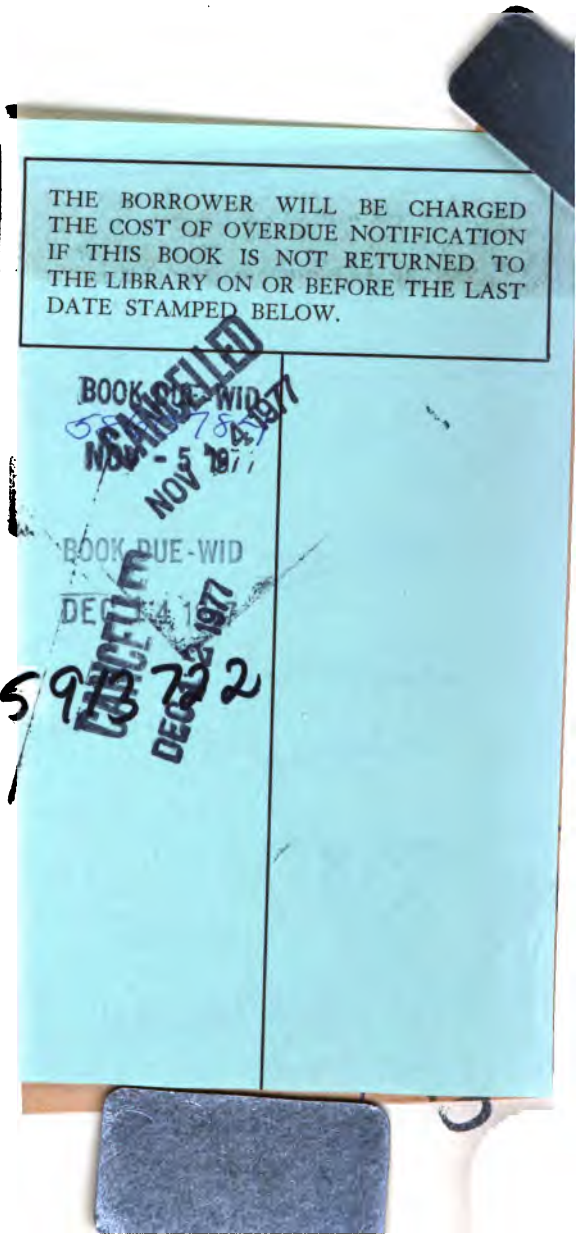
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